电 -




$$
\begin{aligned}
& P J 4564 \\
\therefore & G 383 \\
& 1846 \\
\therefore & \text { copy }
\end{aligned}
$$

# Digitized by the Internet Archive in 2021 with funding from <br> Princeton Theological Seminary Library 

# HEBREW GRAMMAR OF GESENIUS 

AS EDITED BY

## R 0 E DIGER

## TrANSLATED, WITH ADDITIONS, AND ALSO A

## HEBREW CHRESTOMATHY



BY

## M. STUART

PROFESSOR OF SACRED LITERATURE, THEOLOGYCAL SEMINARY, ANDOVER.

## ANDOVER:

PUBLISHED BY ALLEN, MORRILL AND WARDWELL.
NEW YORK: MARK H. NEWMAN \& CO.
BOSTON : JOHN P. JEWETT \& CO.

$$
1846
$$

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1846, by
Moses Stuart,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

## PREFACE.

The sixth edition of my Hebrew Grammar being exhausted, the Publishers invited me to renew my labour, and furnish them with material for a seventh. Engaged as I have been in other labours, I hesitated for sometime whether to accept the invitation. In this state of things, Roediger's edition of Gesenius' Hebrew Grammar came to hand, (the fourteenth edition of that work), and a perusal of it led me to the conclusion, that it would cost not much more labor to translate and publish that, than it would to remodel my own so as to satisfy my own mind, and meet the present state of Hebrew literature. Gesenius, for a period of nearly forty years, continued to correct and remodel his smaller Grammar; and notwithstanding the many and able competitors which he had in Germany, he so far outdid them all, as to make his work popular and secure its reception in most of the High Schools. Roediger, his pupil, colleague, and intimate friend, was entrusted with the editorship of the recent edition, issued since the death of Gesenius. He has executed the work with great ability. It embodies the results of all the recent advances in the knowledge of the Hebrew, and is the most complete representative of the present state of Hebrew philology, with which I am acquainted. Roediger's preëminent attainments in oriental philology, no well informed scholar will venture to call in question. The Grammar of Gesenius, as edited by him, bears marks of his extensive knowledge, on nearly every page. His own testimony in regard to what he has done will describe the nature and extent of his labours, as briefly and plainly as any thing which I could say; and for the satisfaction of the reader I will place it before him.
"The doctrine respecting the Aspirates ( $\$ 7-10$ ), and the theory of the Vowels, and of Sheva ( $\$ 7-10.25-28$ ), are more or less changed. The Gutterals $\approx$ and $\pi$ ( $\$ 23$ ) are separated from the feeble letters, and,$(\$ 24)$. In the second part, which treats of the forms of words, the sections on the Article, on the Verbal-Suffixes, and
 spect to Nouns, a variety of changes were needed; but much could not be done here without completely breaking up the arrangement. In the mean time, $\oint 88$ has been rewritten ; also § 79. 86.86 b , and much besides, have been modified anew. In the Syntax, a new arrangement of the whole might be desirable, with which a new treatment of many topics should be connected. But I was not allowed to make so great a, change ; and therefore had to limit myself to a variety of emendations. In all parts of the Grammar, here and there, additions are made in this new edition." Pref. p. viii.

When I knew, from actual comparison, that this account of what Roediger has done, is true, I did not long hesitate to select the work, as shaped by him, for republication. My translation is designed to be a free one; not in respect to modifying or changing the views of the writer, but merely as to the costume with which they are invested. It has been my design and effort to Anglicize the style, certain techical words alone excepted. I have, in some cases, interwoven a marginal note, with the text; in some few cases abridged the mode of expression; in others I have enlarged, or added something, merely in order to make the matter as perpicuous to the be-
ginner as might be. Many paragraphs, printed in large type by Roediger, and which are merely illustrations or examples, I have here printed in smaller type, as being more appropriate. No inconsiderable additions de novo have also been made to the work, from notes of my own which were made in the course of my Hebrew reading, or from renewed study as exigencies demanded. These I have included in brackets, and to these I have appended my initial [S], wherever they are long enough to be thus distinguished. But when the additions that I have made, were very short and merely exegetical of the original work, I have not generally distinguished them thus; as it would serve no important purpose. I have aimed to give Roediger as he is; and in the few cases where I differ from him, I have expressed my reasons for it, without concealing or designedly changing his views, in a single instance. I would hope, that I have done some service to the reader, at least in a part of these cases. Certain I am, that some of my additions have cost me much labor and investigation.
I have added a new page (p. 310) of Paradigms of the doubly irregular Verbs, in order to aid the beginner. To the whole work, I have appended a Chrestomathy, on a plan, which, if it is not new, is at least more thorough as to gramnatical praxis than my own former one, or than any one which has come under my notice. My reasons for not printing the Hebrew text with it, are obvious. It is superfluous; it would augment the price of the student's apparatus ; and it would swell the present volume to an inconvenient size. Those who prefer it, ean now bind up the Chrestomathy by itself; as the other part of the work is completed independently of it.
I feel quite certain, that if the student will faithfully follow out the method of study which is commended in the Chrestomathy, and exemplified in the Notes, he may promise himself to acquire, in a moderate length of time, a radical and profitable knowledge of the Hebrew.

Another translation of Roedigers' Grammar has been made, and recently published in England. Of this I had no knowledge when I began my labour, and have not, to the present time, been able to procure a copy. Whatever coincidences between the English edition and mine there may be, they are of course entirely accidental.

In justice to the printers and publishers of the present work, I ought to say, that they have spared neither pains nor expense, to present it in an appropriate dress to the public. Some few errors I have occasionally found, in consulting every part of the Grammar in order to make the Chrestomathy. Most of them result from the breaking of the vowels in striking off the sheets. All that was possible to be done, for the sake of accuracy, has been done.

If the noble language of the Hebrews, the very genius and nature of which is poetic and animated beyond the conception of any mere English reader, was not the original language of our first progenitors, it is at least one which deserved to be spoken in Eden itself. It is impossible that it should not create enthusiasm in all intelligent readers of it, provided that they attain to a critical knowledge of its true idiom and character. Without a knowledge of these, many a passage in the New Testament must always be left to conjecture. It is therefore to be hoped, that the study of it may be extended greatly beyond its present limits; and especially that the ministers of the divine word, may in general become familiarly acquainted with it. Independently of the sacred nature of the Old Testament, the book is altogether the most extraordinary in its character of any production that the ancient world has bequeathed us.
M. STUART.

Theol. Seminary, Andover,
Oct. 1846.

## CONTENTS.

## INTRODUCTION.

§1. Of the Semitic languages in

§3. Grammatical Treatises on the
general . . Page 1
§ 2. Historical Sketch of the Hebrew language : . . 71

Hebrew language . 12
§4. Division and Arrangement of Grammar . . . 14

## DIVISION I. (ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES).

Chap. I. Written Signs, and their Meaning.
§ 5. Consonants ; Form and Name 17
§6. Pronunciation and Division of Consonants . . . 20 ters and Vowel-signs 2411. Reading-Signs38
12. Daghesh in general; Dagheshforte in particular . 38

§7. Vowels in general ; Vowel-let-
§ 7. Vowels in general ; Vowel-let- 13. Daghesh lene ..... 3924
§ 8. Vowel-Signs . . . 27
§9. Character and Powers of the
16. Maqqeph and Methegh
16. Maqqeph and Methegh ..... 40
14. Mappiq and Raphe . . 40
Vowels . . . 30 17. Qeri and Kethibh ..... 45
§ 10. Half-Vowels and Syllable-Di- vider ..... 35
Chap. II. Peculiarities and Changes of Letters, Syllables, and Accents.
§ 18. General Remarks 46 / $\mathbf{2 5}$. Immutable Vowels ..... 59
§ 19. Changes of the Consonants 46 § 26. Syllables, their Influence on
§20. Doubling of Consonants byDaghesh forte . . 48
§ 21. Daghesh lene, when insertedand when omitted . 50
§ 22. Gutturals, their powers and pe-culiarities- 52
§ 23. Feeble Sounds of the (iutturals א and $\pi$. . . 55the Vowels . . . 60§ 27. Changes of the Vowels, special-ly in respect to Quantity 63§ 28. Rise of new Vowels and Sylla-bles . . . . 67
§ 29. Accent or Tone-syllable ; chan-ges, spe ially by Pallee-ac-cents . . . . 69
§ 24. Mutations of the feeble Letters 4 and ${ }^{4}$ ..... 57

## DIVISION II. (PRINCIPLES OF FORMS).

Concerning the various parts of Speech.

[^0]Chap. I. (The Pronoun).


Chap. II. (The Verb).


1. Of the regular Verb.
§ 42. Preparatory remarks 87
[A] Ground Form of Kal.
§ 43. Form and meaning of Kal $88 \mid \$ 48$. Jussive and Hortative, in the
§ 44. Perfect of Kal, and its Inflection . . . 88 § 48 b . Perfect and Imperfect with § 45. Infinitive Mode . . 91 Vav consecutive . . 97
§ 46. The Imperative . . $92 \mid § 49$. The Participle . . 99
§ 47. Imperfect Tense and its Inflection . . . . 93
[B] Derived Conjugations.
§ 50. Niphal . . . $100 \mid$ §53. Hithpael . . . 107
§ 51. Piel and Pual - 102 § 54. Unusual Conjugations - 109
§ 52. Hiphil and Hophal . 105 § 55 . Quadriliterals . . 110
[C] Verbal Pronoun-Suffixes.
§ 56. General Remarks . . $111 \mid \$ 59$. Imperfect with Pronoun-Suf-
§57. Pronoun-Suftixes to the 115 Verb. . . $111 \$ 60$. Inf., Imper., and Participle, §58. Perfect with Pronoun-Suf- $\quad$ with Suffixes . . 116 fixes . . . . 113
II. Of the irregular Verbs.-[A] Verbs with Gutturals.
§61. General Remarks . - $117 \mid \$ 63$. Verls second or middle Gut§ 62. Verbs first Gutural - $\left.117\right|_{\text {§ } 64 . \text { Verbs third Guttural }} ^{\text {tural }} 120$

## [B] Contract Verbs.

 Radical Nun . . 121 or midd. radical doubled 122

## [C] Feeble Verbs.



e．g．コゼッ • • 130
e．g．

§ 71．Verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ צ，i．e．second Radical： 1；e．g．ตाp－． 131
§72．Verbs ${ }^{\circ}$ ²，i．e．second Radical
§ 75．Verbs doubly irregular 143
§ 76．Relation of irregular Verbs to each other ．．． 143 ＂；e．g．${ }^{7}$ T․․ ． 134 ｜§77．Defective Verbs ．． 144

Chaf．III．（Of the Noun）．

| §78．General View ．． 14 | 145 | § 88．Remains of ancient Case－End－ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| §79．Gender ．．． 14 | 146 | ings（п－，ヶ－，¢－）． 162 |
| \＄80．Original Source of Nouns 14 | 148 | § 89．Noun with Pronoun－Suffixes 164 |
| § 81．Nouns primitive－． 14 | 149 | § 90．Vowel－Changes in the Noun 168 |
| §82．Verbal Nouns；general R marks | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Re- } \\ & 149 \end{aligned}$ | § 91．Paradigms of the masculine <br> Nouns ．．． 169 |
| § 83．Derivate Nouns of regular Verbs ．．． 150 |  | § 92．Changes of Vowels in forming the Feminines ．． 176 |
| § 84．Derivates of irregular Verbs 15 | 154 | § 93．Paradigms of the Feminines 178 |
| § 85．Denominative Nouns ． 15 | 155 | § 94．List of irregular Nouns ． 181 |
| § 86．Of the Plural ．． 15 | 156 | § 95．Cardinal Numbers；Paradigms， |
| § 86 b．The Dual ．．．． 15 | 159 | etc．．．． 182 |
| §87．Genitive and Construct－ State ．．． 1 | $160$ | § 96．Ordinal Numbers̀ ．． 185 |
| Chap．IV | IV． | （Particles）． |
| § 97．General Remarks－． 18 | 186 | § 101．Prepositions with Suffixes 190 |
| § 98．Adverbs ．．． 18 | 187 | § 102．Conjunctions ．． 193 |
| § 99．Prepositions ．． 18 | 188 | § 103．Interjections ．． 194 |
| 100．Prefix－Prepositions ． 18 | 189 |  |

## DIVISION III．（SYNTAX．）

## Chap．1．（Syntax of the Noun）．

§ 104．Relation of Noun to Adjective ；of Abstract to Concrete 196
§ 105．Use of Gender ..... 197
§ 106．Plural and Collectives ． 200
§ 10\％．The Article ..... 203
§ 108．Omission of the Article 207
§ 109．Article in connected Words 208
§ 110．Connection of Nonn with Ad－jective211
\＆111．Apposition ..... － 212
§ 112．The Genitive ..... 213
§ 113 ．Circumscription of the Geni－ tive ..... 214
§ 114．Further Use of the Construct－ State ..... 215

## Chap. III. (Syntax of the Verb).



Char. IV. (Connection of Subject with Predicate).
§ 141. Expression of the Copula 258 § 144. Position of the Predicate 262 § 142. Arraugement of Words in Sen- \$ 145. Construction of compound tences; Case absolute 259
§ 143. Subject and Predicate as to
Gender and Number . 260
Char. V. (Use of the Particles).

| § 146. General Remarks | 264 | § 150. | Interrogative | Words an | Sen- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| § 147. Adverbs | 265 |  | tences |  | 269 |
| § 148. Construction of Adverbs | 267 | § 151. | Prepositions | * | 272 |
| § 149. Particles of Negation | 267 | § 152. | Conjunctions | . | 277 |
|  |  | § 153. | Interjections |  | 282 |

## EXCURSUS.

Exc. I. On the Antiquity of the Egyptian Letters . . . 283
Exc. II. Egyptian Etymology of the Personal Pronouns . . 285

## Paradigms.

A. Of the personal Pronouns, separate and suffix . . . . 288
$\boldsymbol{B}-\boldsymbol{P}$. Of the Verbs regular, with Suffixes, and irregular . 290 seq. Index . . . . . . . . . . . . 311

Appendix comprising Directions for Study, and a Heb. Chrestomathy 317

## INTRODUCTION.

## § 1. <br> On the Semitic Languages in general.

1. The Hebrew is only one particular branch of a more extensive parent-language of hither Asia, which was native in Palestine, Phenicia, Syria, Mesopotamia, Babylonia, Arabia, and also in the countries from the Mediterranean Sea to the Tigris, and from the Armenian Mountains to the southern coast of Arabia. In ancient times, moreover, it spread itself from Arabia over Ethiopia, and by means of Phenician colonies over many islands and coasts of the Mediterranean, and particularly over the whole of the Carthaginian coast-lands.* An ancient name appropriate to this parent-language of many nations, is wanting. Semitic language, however, is an appellation at present generally received; and inasmuch as a more appropriate one has not been furnished, this may be retained. This appellation is borrowed from the fact, that most of the nations who spoke this language, were the descendants of Shem (Sem); Gen. 10: 21 seq. $\dagger$
2. This Semitic parent-language is divided into three main

[^1]branches: (a) The Arabic; which has its seat in the southern part of the Semitic domain of language. To this belongs the Aethiopic, as the offspring of the South Arabian (Himyaritic). (b) The Aramuean; in the north and northeast. This is called the Syriac, in the form which it takes in Christian Aramaean literature; but it is named Chaldee, as presented in the Jewish Aramaean writings. To this last belong some later portions of the Old Testament, viz. Ezra 4: 8-6: 18. 7: 12-26. Dan. 2: 4 $-7: 28$.* As the Chaldee very frequently has a Hebrew colouring, so also has the Samaritan, which belongs to this same class. The Aramaean of the Nasoraeans, (Disciples of John, Sabians), is a very debased dialect, even more corrupt than the present Vulgar-Syriac. $\dagger$ (c) The Hebrew; with which the Canaanitish and Pherician (Punic) nearly coincide.-These languages stand in about the same relation to each other as the Germanic family of languages, (e. g. the Gothic, Old North, Danish, Swedish, high and low German, in the older and more recent dialects) ; or as the Slavish family, (e. g. the Lithuanian, Lettish; old Slavish, Servian, Russian; Polish, Bohemian). They are either altogether extinct, as the Phenician; or they exist only in an altered and distorted form, as the Aramaean among the Syrian Christians in Curdistan and Mesopotamia; the Aethiopic in the new Abyssinian dialects (Tigre, Amharic); and the Hebrew among a part of the Jews now living, (although these aim at a reproduction in their writings of the Old Testament language). The Arabic language, however, has not only retained until the present time its original seat, Arabia proper, but has penetrated in every direction into other domains of language.
The Semitic language, on the north and east, is hemmed in by another far more extended language, which stretches itself from India to the west of Europe ; and since this comprises several branches, the Indian (Sanscrit), old and new Persian, Greek, Latin, Slavic, Gothic, with other Germanic tongues, it has been named the Indo-Germanic. In ancient times, the Semitic extribited many points of contact with the old Egyptian language; a derivate of which is the Coptic. Both had many things in common, but their

[^2]mutual relation is not as yet accurately defined.* The Chinese, Japanese, Tartar, and other languages, bear an entirely different stamp.
3. The grammatical structure of the Semitic parent-language has many peculiarities, which as a whole stamp a distinctive character on it, although many single words are found in other languages. Such are the following: (a) Among the consonants, which generally form the germ and body of this language, are many gradations of gutturals. The vowels, which spring from the three leading sounds $(a, i, u)$, serve the purpose of subordinate distinctions. (b) For the most part, the word-stems consist of three consonants. (c) The Verbs have but two forms of tenses; while there is great regularity and all pervading analogy in the formation of verbals. (d) The Noun has only two genders, and a very simple designation of cases. (e) The Pronouns form all their oblique cases by forms appended to words, ( $S_{i} f$ fixes). ( $f$ ) Almost no composite words exist, either in nouns (proper names excepted), or in verbs. $\left.{ }_{(g)}^{g}\right)$ In the Syntax, there is a very simple sequency of words, without much periodic subordination of clauses.
4. In a lexical respect, the storehouse of the Semitic is far and essentially remote from that of the Indo-Germanic languages; but still, the resemblance is greater in this respect, than in a grammatical one. Not a few stem and root words agree, in respect to sound, with those of the Indo-Germanic. But apart from those expressions that are immediately borrowed, (see in the sequel), actual resemblance limits itself partly to words imitative of sound, (Onomatopoetica), partly to those wherein the same or a like meaning flow from the nature of the same sound, according to the general type of human language. Neither the one nor the other implies actual historical (national) relation; for to the more specific proof of this, an agreement in grammatical structure would be necessary. $\dagger$

[^3]Roots of words imitating sounds, which are found in Sanscrit, Greek,

 wallen, English to well; ; דָרח , $\chi$, tare, Fiench gratter, Engl. to grate, to scratch, kratzen; PZథ, frango, brechen, etc. An example of another kind is am, ham, (sam), gam, kam, with the
 people, properly an assembly), together with, Arab. צax to assemble ; Pers. hem, hemeh, together with; Sansc. amâ with,
 sound Kolvós, Lat. cum, cumulus, cunctus, with the corresponding hissing
 man sammt, sammeln; but still, several of these are attended with considerable doubt.

Essentially different from this internal connection is it, when languages borrow words from each other, and confer upon them the rights of natives. Thus:
(a) When Indian, Egyptian, or Persian objects are designated, in the $\mathrm{He}-$ brew, by their native names; e. g. (Egypt. yero) river, Nile; (Egypt.
 Daricus, Persian gold-coin. Several of these foreign names are transferred also to the Greek; e. g. from the Ind. togei (Sansc. sikhi) peacock ; ַַּפְ (Sansc. karpâsa) cotton, xá $\rho$ $\pi \alpha \sigma o s$, carbasus.
(b) When Semitic words for Asiatic things have passed over to the Greeks

 cummin.
5. The writing of the Semitae exhibits a striking imperfection in one respect, viz. that only the consonants, (with which the meaning of roots is closely allied), are arranged in the line

[^4]as actual letters. On the other hand, merely the more extended vowels, and not always even these, are expressed by vicarious consonants, i. e. those which are put in the place of vowels, (\$7). In order to exhibit all the vowels to the eye, special small signs, attached to the consonants, (viz. points or small strokes over and under the line), were introduced at a later period, ( $\$ 8$ ); which however, for the more expert readers, might be omitted. Besides this, the Semitic writing always takes its direction from right to left. Only the Ethiopic makes an exception; but this was probably an innovation of the first missionaries who introduced Christianity into Ehiopia; while, at an earlier period, this writing, like its counter-part the south Arabian or Himyaritic, in like manner as in the other Semitic dialects, originally ran from right to left.* For the rest, so unlike as the Semitic alphabets are as to forms, when compared together, yet they all sprung from the same original alphabet, which has undergone various adjustments and modifications. The truest picture of the original method of writing, which is now to be found among the alphabets at present extant, is the Phenician; from which the old Greek, and through this all the European, writing is derived.

A view of the Phenician Alphabet, and of the oriental and occidental ones that have proceeded from it, may be seen in Gesenius' Monumenta Phenicia (Lips. 1837, Tom. I.-III. 4to.) Tab. 1-5. Comp. p. 15 seq. Also the same writer's Article, Palaeographie, in Ersch and Gruber's Encyclopädie, § 3. Th. 9, with the Table thereto annexed.
6. As it respects the relative age of the Semitic languages, the oldest works before us are in the Hebrew tongue, (see \$2). The Aramaean commences about the time of Cyrus, (in the book of Ezra) ; but the Arabian branch begins its development in the centuries immediately after the commencement of the Christian era, e. g. in the Himyaritic inscriptions, and afterwards in the Aethiopic version of the Scriptures during the 4th century, and in the North Arabian literature since the 6ith century. But the progress of spoken language among a people, or among different tribes, depends on other causes than the development of a literature; and oftentimes the complete formation of a language is interrupted before it attains to a literature, by early en-

[^5]counters with nations speaking a strange language. So, within the Semitic domain, perished the Aramaean dialects, in great part, and at a very early period; and next to these, the HebrewCanaanitish. Longest of all did the Arabic preserve the natural fulness of its forms, since, among the retired tribes of the desert, it could remain at rest and undisturbed in its fully stamped organism, until the overturns in consequence of Mohammedism occasioned a great decline; so that it then, at so late a period, reached about the same stand-point where we find the He brew, in the time of the Old 'Testament.

Hence the appearance, (which has erroneously been regarded as something quite striking), that the old Hebrew, in its grammatical structure, agrees much oftener with the later than with the earlier Arabic. Hence too the reason why the last, although it is presented to our notice and examination (like the other Semitic languages) at a late period, still maintains in various respects the like place among these languages, that the Sanscrit holds among the Indo-Germanic tongues. How a language can sometimes preserve, within itself and in the midst of perishing sister-tongues, its full organism, is shown by the Lithuanian, compared with the appropriately sonamed Slavish languages. In like manner did the Doric, with tenacious steadfastness, preserve its old forms and sounds; and so the Friesian and Icelandic, among the German and Northern tongues. But even the most steadfast and lasting structure of language often wears away, as to particular forms, by reason of a propensity in men to new formations; while, on the contrary, amidst even the general wreck of a language, here and there something original and ancient remains. So is it with the Semitic languages. The Arabic has its deficiencies, and its later accessions; but, in general, there belongs to it a precedence, specially in regard to the vowel-system.

A more particular confirmation and further explanation of these matters belong to a comparative Grammar of the Semitic languages. From what has been said it follows: (1) That the Hebrew language, as it develops itself in the ancient literature of the Hebrews, has suffered more considerable losses in regard to its organism, than those Arabic dialects which have at a later period come within the sphere of our observation. (2) That still, we are not entitled in all respects to give to this last the preference or priority. (3) It must be regarded as an error, when many, on account of the simplicity of Aramaeism, hold it to be the oldest among Semitic tongues; for this apparent simplicity has been brought about, by the decay of the organism of the language and by the contraction of the forms.*

[^6]
## § 2. <br> Sketch of the history of the Hebrew language.*

1. The Hebrew language is the mother-tongue of the Hebrew and Israelitish people, during the period of their inde-

 been an appellation given to it by foreigners. Instead of this, we find, in Is. 19: 18, the language of Canaan (poetic), i. e. it is named from the country in which it is spoken. We find also in 2 Kings 18: 26 and Neh. 13: 24, ידוּדיחת (Jewish); comp. Is. 36: 11, 13. This last appellation seems to have taken its rise after the exile of the ten tribes. The tribe of Judah, which was the predominant one of the two remaining tribes, gave both the national name, and the name of the national language. See the word Jews, in Jer. Neh. Esther.
 lsraelites (בְּנְ cal name, which the people were accustomed to attribute to themselves, with patriotic reference to their origin ; while the first (Hebrews) is an appellation bestowed upon the Hebrew nation by foreigners, and is used either when a distinction from other nations is intended to be made, (Gen. 40: 15. 43: 32), or when a foreigner is represented as speaking of the Hebrews, (Gen. 39: 14, 17. 41: 12, comp. שִׁבְ in the Lex.). On the other hand, among the Greeks and Romans this is the only appellation which is employed; e. g. by Pausanias, Josephus, and Tacitus. It means, when appellatively understood: Those beyond, People from a country beyond; and it is derived from $7 \mathcal{Y}$, which means country beyond, in particular the country beyond the Euphrates. The derivative ending "-( $\$ 85.5)$ is attached to and thus makes a gentile or national name. Perhaps it has relation to the fact, that Abraham and his tribe emigrated from the country east of the Euphrates, and came to Palestine, Gen. 14: 13. The Heb. genealogies, however, seem to regard the name as a patronymic, derived from Eber, [Gen. 10: 21-25, the grandson of Shem]; see Gen. 10: 21. Num. 24: 24.

At the time of the N. Test., Hebrew, ( $\varepsilon$ §९ü̈̈cii, John 5: 2. 19: 13, 17, 20 ,
 dialect, (see No. 5 of this $\S$ ), in distinction from the Greek. Josephus employs the same word in this sense, (about A. D. 95), as also to designate the ancient Hebrew.

[^7]The holy tongue (lingua sancta) was first employed for the like purpose, in the Chaldee Targums or translations of the holy books into Chaldee. The appellation is employed here in opposition to lingua profana, by which the translators meant the Chaldee language.
2. In the oldest Hebrew writings, as they lie before us, i. e. in the Pentateuch, we meet at the outset with the language about in the same state in which it appears down to the Babylonish exile, and some time after; and all historical notices of its earlier formation are wanting. So far as we are acquainted with its history, Canaan was its proper home; and before the Hebrews settled there, it seems for substance to have been spoken by the Canaanitish and Phenician nations, ${ }^{*}$ from whom Abraham and his posterity received it. Thence it was transplanted by the latter to Egypt, and again brought back with them to Canaan.

That the Canaanitish tribes in Palestine spoke the language which we now call Hebrew, is shown by the fact that the proper names of persons and places belong to this language; e. g. صַלְבִּ צֶּ king of righteousness,
 Canaanites, unless the art of writing was older than the time of Moses? -S.]

Not less accordant with the Hebrew are the remains of the Phenician and Punic language. We find these partly in their own peculiar character ( $\$ 1.5$ ), as employed in inscriptions and on coins ; partly in the writings of the Greeks and Romans, which have preserved many of their words. The inscriptions are about seventy in number ; see in Ges. Mon. Phenic. Tom. III. tab. 6-48, with explanations p. $90-328$; see also Plautus' Poenulus, 5. 1, 2, which exhibits a continuous piece of the Punic. The native orthography is evident from the monuments; the pronunciation and vocalization, from the words as imitated in Latin and Greek. Both together exhibit very graphically the nature of the language itself, and its relation to the Hebrew.
The most important diversities in orthography and the forms of words, are, (1) The almost constant omission of the vowel-letters [Quiescents]; e. g. קר for for ; ; see §7.2. (2) The fem. forms, even in the absolute state, ending in $n(\$ 79.2)$ instead of $\pi-$. (3) The article is as fre-

[^8]quently expressed by $\times$ as by $\pi$ ，（ $\$ 32$ ）．More striking still is the pronun－ ciation，especially the Punic．In this，the $\eta$ is predominantly read as $\hat{\imath}$ ；
 $\check{\imath}$ and $\check{e}$ we frequently find the obscure obtuse $y$ ；e．g．． eum），rxy yth．The Ayin（ت゙）as o；e．g．עׁ Mocar，（comp．シュּ Maró）．See the synopsis of the grammatical peculiarities，in the Mon． Phenic．p． 430 seq．

3．As to the language of the O ．Test．records which are ex－ tant，we can definitely distinguish only two periods．The first reaches to the end of the Babylonish exile，which we name the golden age of the Hebrew ；the second or silver age commences with the end of the exile．

The first comprises the larger half of the O．Test．books， namely the prosaic historic writings of the Pentateuch［includ－ ing Joshua ？］the books of Judges，Ruth，Samuel，and Kings ；of the poetic，the Psalms（with the exception of a number of the later ones），Proverbs，Canticles，Job；the older Prophets in the following chronological order，Joel，Amos，Hosea，Isaiah，Mi－ cah，Zephaniah，Habakkuk，Nahum，Obadiah，Jeremiah，Ezek－ iel．The last two，who lived and taught a short time before and during the first years of the Babylonish exile，and in like manner the last part of the book of Isaiah，（chap． $40-66$ with some preceding ones），stand on the limits of the two ages．＊

The commencement of the period of Hebrew literature in general is doubt－ less to be assigned to the time of Moses，even in case the Pentateuch，in its present form and compass，be the work of later remodeling．For the history of the language，and for our purpose，it is sufficient to remark，that the Pentateuch undoubtedly has some peculiarities of language which may pass for archaisms．The הוּא（he，see § 32，note 6），and（young man）are of the common gender，and stand also for she，young woman，（like $\delta$ and $\hat{\eta} \pi \alpha \tilde{\iota}_{\xi}$ ）；
 mon here，are exchanged in other books for softer ones，e．g．

[^9]On the other hand, in Jeremiah and Ezekiel are examples of decided approach to the Aramaean hue of the silver age.
4. Although particular writers and books have their peculiarities, yet they are not such as enable us to make any very important distinctions in respect to the history of the language at this period. The time, moreover, when several books were composed, particularly the anonymous historical ones, cannot be accurately determined. On the other hand, the poetic dialect everywhere distinguishes itself from the prosaic one, not merely by a rhytlmus which consists in measured parallelisms, but also by its peculiar words, meaning of words, forms of words, and syntactical connections; although this distinction is not so striking, as it is (for example) in the Greek. Most of these poetic idioms are to be found in the kindred languages, particularly in the Aramaean, where they are ordinary modes of expression, and ought to be regarded partly as archaisms which poetry has retained, and partly as additions to the stores of the Hebrew, which were made by Hebrew poets skilled in the Aramaean language.* In fine, the prophets are almost entirely to be considered as poets, in respect to language and rhythm; with the exception, that in these poetic orators the sentences frequently are carried to a greater length, and the parallelism is less measured and regular, than in the poets appropriately so called. The language of the later prophets approaches near to that of prose.
In respect to the Rhythm of the Hebrew poetry, see in particular, De Wette, Comm. über die Psalmen (4th edit. Heidelb. 1836), Einleit. § 7. Also the short sketch of Gesenius, Heb. Lesebuch, Vorerinn. zur 2ten Abtheilung. Comp. H. Ewald, die poet. Bücher des Alt. Test. Th. I. (Göttingen, 1839).

Words which are used in poetry, together with others belonging to prose, are such as

To the poetic meaning of words belongs the use of certain poetic epithets for nouns; e. g. אָּדִיר, the mighty one, for God; mighty, for bull,


As to the forms of words, one should note the protracted forms of local prepositions ( $\$ 101$ ); e. g.

[^10]
 belongs the much less frequent use of the article, of the relative pronoun, and of the Acc. particle $\pi \times$. The const. state also fiequently stands before prepositions; the shortened or apocopate Imperfect is employed with the same meaning as the usual form of the same ; and generally, there is an intensitive brevity of expression.
5. The second or silver age of the Hebrew language and literature comprises the period reaching from the return out of exile [B. C. 536], to the time of the Maccabees (about 160 B. C.). It is marked by an approximation of the language to the kindred Aramaean (Chaldee) dialect ; to which the Jews residing at Babylon had become accustomed the more easily, because it approached pretty near to the Hebrew. Even after the return from exile, the Aramaean continued in use among the Jews; and it had great influence upon the older book-language, particularly upon the prose, and gradually expelled it from common use, although the knowledge of the ancient language, and of compositions written in it, still continued among the learned.
One may appropriately illustrate the relation between these two languages, by a reference to the high and low German in Lower Saxony ; or still more exactly, by comparing the high German and the popular dialect in South Germany and Switzerland, inasmuch as here the popular dialect produces an influence even upon the well educated, in respect to their mode of speaking and writing high German. The idea which has become current, in consequence of an erroneous interpretation of Neh. 8: 8, is quite incorrect, viz., that the Jews, after the exile, entirely forgot their ancient language, and were obliged to learn it from priests and scribes.

The O. Test. writings belonging to this second period, in all of which a Chaldee colouring, although in different degrees, is exhibited, are the books of Chronicles, Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther; Jonah, ${ }^{*}$ Haggai, Zechariah, Malachi, Daniel. Of the poetic

[^11]books, there are Ecclesiastes and the later Psalms. In a litera$r y$ respect these books fall far behind the more ancient ones; but still there are not wanting some productions of this period, which in purity of language and aesthetic worth fall little short of the golden age. E. g. Psalms cxx. cxxxvii. cxxxix.

Later (Chaldaizing) words, instead of which the earlier writers employ
 amples of later meaning are צָּנָה (to answer) to address any one, to commence speaking. Grammatical peculiarities are, the frequent

 $\Gamma_{\tau}$ and $\kappa_{\Gamma}$ at the end of words, and the frequent use of the noun-ending,


Finally, not all the peculiarities of the later writers are Chaldaisms. Sevcral of them are not found at all in the Chaldee, and must have belonged to the Hebrew language at an earlier period, particularly, as it would seem, to the North Palestine dialect. There the books of Kings and Canticles may have taken their rise. Hence in these older writings we find for Mֵ, which is predominant usage in the Phenician.

Note 1. Of dialectical discrepancies in the old Hebrew a few traces are found ; but they are of little importance, e. g. Judg. 12: 6, according to which
 12: 23, 24, where the dialect of Ashdod (Philistine) is spoken of.

Note 2. It cannot well be supposed, that the present remains of the ancient Hebrew Literature have preserved the whole stores of the ancient tongue. These must have been of greater compass and copiousness than the canonical books of the O . Test. now before us, since only a part of the ancient Hebrew literature has been preserved.

## § 3. <br> Grammatical treatises on the Hebrew language.*

1. After the extinction of the Hebrew language, and the completion of the almost contemporary collection of the O. Test. books, the Jews began partly to explain their sacred Codex and to bestow critical labour upon it, and partly to translate it into the then predominant language of the country. The oldest translation is that into Greek, at Alexandria under Ptolemy Philadelphus, which began with the Pentateuch, and was subsequently completed by different authors. This is usually named

[^12]the Septuagint. In part, this was executed by persons who had a vernacular knowledge of the original language ; and the object of it was, to aid those who spoke the Greek, particularly the Alexandrine Jews. Somewhat later, the Chaldee translations or Targums (nannan where made, in Palestine and in Babylonia. The explanations, which were partly drawn from pretended tradition, have reference almost exclusively to the civil and ritual Lav and Doctrines, and have as little of a scientific character as the remarks on various readings. Both are also treated of in the Talmud; the first part of which (the Mishna) was composed in the third century, the second (the Gemara) in the sixth century after Christ. The Mishna forms the commencement of the new Hebrew literature; while, on the contrary, the Gemara has more of a Chaldee hue.
2. In the interim between the conclusion of the 'Talmud and the first grammatical writers, falls, in the main, the vocalization of the hitherto unpointed text ( $\$ 7.3$ ). To the same period must we assign the collection of critical remarks, which bears the name of Masora (nop tradition); from which, in a form prescribed by this, the Hebrew text was continued down by Mss., and now constitutes what we name the received text of the O. Testament. In reference to the source whence its modifications come, it is denominated the Masoretic text.

One of the most important parts of the Masora is the various readings denominated Keri, $\$ 17$. But one should be on his guard, so as not to confound the work of pointing the text with the compilation of the Masora. The former belongs to an earlier period, and it is the fruit of a much more thorough labour than that of the Masora.
3. In the ninth century, after the example of the Arabians, were the first beginnings in grammatical compositions made on the part of the Jews. The attempts at such composition by Rabbi Saadia ( $\dagger 942$ ) are lost; but the works of Rabbi Judah Hhayug (named also Abu Zacharia Yahya, about 1040) are still extant in Mss., in the Arabic language; as also of Rabbi Jonah, (Abul Walid Mervan ben Gannach, about 1050). Aided by these works Abraham ben Ezra (about 1150), and Rabbi David Kimchi (about 1190-1200), acquired a classical reputation as grammarians. From these first grammarians arose many of
the methodical arrangements and technical terms of grammar, which are still in part retained; e. g. the names of the several conjugations and of the irregular verbs after the model of 3 , wive, the mnemonic or memorial words, such as n
4. The father of Hebrew grammatical knowledge among Christians, was John Reuchlin ( $\dagger 1522$ ), whose merits in respect to Greek literature were also great. He, however, like all grammarians of the following period even down to Buxtorf ( $\dagger 1629$ ), followed almost entirely the Jewish tradition. It is only since the middle of the seventeenth century, that the circle of knowledge in respect to this subject has been enlarged. The study of the kindred languages was made very fruitful in results which had a bearing upon Hebrew grammar, particularly by Albert Schultens ( $\dagger 1750$ ), and by N. W. Schroeder ( $\dagger 1798$ ).

The labours bestowed upon Hebrew Grammar, so far as they are of permanent scientifical value, may be best judged of, when one represents the demands now made on those who treat grammatically of an ancient language. These may be summarily represented thus: (1) One must notice in the most complete and accurate manner possible the phenomena of a language still extant; and then these must be represented in an organic connection. (This is the empirical or historico-critical element). (2) He must endeavour to explain these facts, partly by a comparison among themselves and by analogy with kindred languages, and partly by the general principles of the philosophy of language. (This is the philosophic or rational element).

## § 4.

Division and Arrangement of Grammar.
The divisions and arrangement of a Hebrew Grammar are obvious, by reason of the three constituent parts of every language; viz. (1) Articulate sounds expressed by letters, and the connection of them in syllables. (2) Words. (3) Sentences.

The first part (elementary science) contains, in accordance with this, instruction respecting the sounds, and the designation

[^13]of them by letters. It also teaches the manner of uttering the sounds represented by the letters (orthoëpy); the customary method of writing (orthography) ; and then considers the sounds as connected in syllables and words, and explains the laws and conditions under which this connection can take place.

The second part (the doctrine of forms) treats of words in their quality as parts of speech; and it contains, (1) Rules for the formation of words, or the rise of the several parts of speech out of the roots, or out of one another. (2) Rules for declining words (flexion) in the various forms which they take, according to their relation to each other, and to the sentence.

The third part, (Syntax, or the junction of words), has for its object to show, partly how the different flexions of words existing in a language are employed in designating different ideas and those of delicate shades, and how other ideas, for which the language has coined no appropriate forms, are expressed by circumlocution; partly, moreover, to give the rules according to which the parts of speech are connected together in sentences. (These last are called sentence-rules, or syntax in the narrower sense of the word).

## FIRST PRINCIPAL DIVISION.

## ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES.

CHAPTER I.<br>OF WRITTEN SIGNS OR LETTERS, AND THEIR VOCAL SIGNIFICANCE.

## § 5. <br> Of the Consonants. Form and Name.

1. The Hebrew characters in present use, in which the manuscripts of the Old Testament are written, commonly called the square character, also the Assyrian character, are not original. On the coins of the Maccabaean princes is found a different character, which very probably was in general use for writing the Hebrew at an early period, and has a strong resemblance to the Samaritan character, and of course to the Phenician $(\$ 1,5)$. The square character may also be traced back to the Phenician; but for the most part it harmonizes with certain Aramaean inscriptions on monuments found in Egypt, as also with those of the Palmyrene monuments.
See the Alphabets of these kinds of writing, in Ges. Monum. Phenic., tab. 1-5.
2. The Alphabet consists, like all Semitic ones, of consonants only. These are twenty-two in number; some of them having occasionally the power of vowels, $(\$ 7,2)$. The forms, sounds, names, and numerical value, are exhibited in the following table:

| Form． | $\left.\right\|_{\text {Lsented by }} ^{\text {Reprem }}$ | $\left.\right\|_{\text {y }} ^{\text {Sounded }}$ as | ${ }_{\text {Names in }}^{\text {Namber }}$ | in 1 Which are ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | bs and sounded as | ${ }^{\text {Numerica，}}$ value． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$ | $N$ | ， | 920 | Nālĕph | Aw＇lĕf | 1 |
| マ，こ | bh，b | v，b | תִּית | Bēth | Baith | 2 |
| 3， 3 | gh，g | g | 3n㬽 | Gīměl | Geé－měl | 3 |
| 7,7 | dh，d | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tht in } \\ \text { that，} \\ \text { d }\end{array}\right.$ | 而 | Dālĕth | Dav＇lěth | 4 |
| $\cdots$ | h | h | N－ | Hē | Hay | 5 |
| 7 | v | v | 71 | Vāv | Vawv | 6 |
| T | z | 2 | 3 T | Zăyı̆n | Zâ－yin | 7 |
| $\pi$ | hh | hh | 5n¢ | Hhēth | Hhaith | 8 |
| $\bullet$ | t | $t$（hard） | טֵטים | Tēt | Taith | 9 |
| ， | y | y | 7 | Yōdh | Yoadh | 10 |
| 2， $2,(7)$ | $\mathrm{kh}, \mathrm{k}$ | kh，k | ¢0 | Kăph | Kăf | 20 |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | 7－2\％ | Lāmědh | Law＇－mĕdh | 30 |
| $\square$ ，（a） | m | m | － 0 | Mēm | Maim | 40 |
| 2，（p） | n | n | 7 | Nūn | Noon | 50 |
| 0 | s | s | 7no | Sāmĕkh | Saw＇－měkh | 60 |
| $y$ | $\nu$ | ＂ | TY | yăyı̆n | A－yin | 70 |
| D， D ，（5） | ph，p | f，p | N2． | $\mathrm{P}_{\overline{\text { ex }}}$ | Pay | 80 |
| \％，（\％） | ts | ts | － | Tsādē | Tsaw－dhéy | 90 |
| P | q | q | ¢ | Qōph | Qoaf | 100 |
| 7 | r | r | ？ | Rēsh | Raish | 200 |
| セ่ | sh | sh | بٌ | Shīn | Sheen | 300 |
| \％ | s | s |  | Sin | Seen |  |
| ת， | th，t | th，t | 7 \％ | Tāv | Tawv | 400 |

3. Five letters have a form, when final or standing at the end of a word, different from the form elsewhere; viz. $7, \mathrm{~B}, \mathfrak{7}, \mathrm{\square}, \boldsymbol{p}$. In the alphabet above, these are included in a parenthesis; and they are technically named finales, i. e. final letters; the Hebrews

[It is plain that these final letters would assist the reader much, in ancient times, when no division or space was left between words in writing. This circumstance probably gave rise to the invention of them.-S.]
4. Hebrew is read from right to left. Words are not broken at the end of a line (as in English); but to fill out such spaces as must often occur, certain letters are dilated (dilatabiles); viz. the following five:

## 

(1) The figures of the letters were originally rapid and abbreviated sketches of sensible objects, the name of which began with the letter designated. E.g. T, $\Lambda$, the rough figure of a camel's neck, properly means camel
 but the letter $s$ stands for merely the first sound in this word. In the Phenician alphabets, the similitude of the figures to the objects after which they are named, is, for the most part, still discernible; and in the square alphabet this is preserved in respect to several of the letters, e. g. $7,3,7, \mathfrak{y}$.

The most probable meaning of the names of the letters is as follows: weapon, medge, minding, perhaps leather-pouch, (al. serpent), דוּ hat

 sign.

Certain as it is that the Semitee first constructed this alphabet, yet, on the other hand, it is quite probable, that the Egyprian writing (the so-called phonetic hieroglyphics) served as the exemplar of it in respect to the principle concerned with its construction, although not as to the forms of the letters; for these hieroglyphics designate, not objects themselves by sketches like to those in kyriological hieroglyphics, but only the commencing sounds of their names; e. g. the hand (tot) represents the letter $t$, the lion (laboi) the letter l.*

[^14](2) The order of sequency in the alphabet was originally determined, in part, by a grammatical consideration of the sounds. This is plain from the continuous succession of the three softest Labials, Palatals, and Dentals, ב, 2,7 ; then the three Liquids, 3, $\mathbf{y , ~ 2}$; and other like arrangements. (See Lepsius, Sprachvergleichende Ablandlungen, Berlin, 1836, No. 1). But other influences have also operated in respect to this matter. Surely it is not the result of mere accident, that hand and hollow hand ( $4, \Sigma$ ), hinderhead and head ( $\mathrm{P}, 7$ ), water and fish ( 2,7 ), eye and mouth ( $~(y, ~ घ)$, are ranged together. Both the order and the names of the alphabet of the Phenicians passed from them over to the Greeks, with slight variations, [and some additions necessary to complete the phonetics of the latter].
[The number (22) and order of Hebrew letters are settled by the alphabetic compositions of the O. Test., viz. Ps. 25. 34. 37. 111. 112. 119. 145. Prov. 31: 10 seq. Lam. i-iv. In Ps. 25. 34. 145, one letter is omitted; in Ps. 27, 2 is repeated and $y$ omitted. The scparation of $ש$ into $ש$ and was later than the period of the carly alpha-bet-Several names of the letters exhibit forms of words that must have been more
 forms very rare in the Hebrew Scriptures. So also 7 ,
(3) The Hebrews have no numeral cyphers, like ours, but employ consonants to designate numbers. This usage, however, belongs not to the $\mathbf{O}$. Test. of itself. We can trace it no farther back than the coins in the time of the Maccahees, (about 150 B. C.) But at a later period, all chapters and verses of the $\mathbf{O}$. Test. came to he marked or numbered in this way; in like manner as enumeration was designated by the Greeks. ( $\alpha$ ) The alphabet from $\mathfrak{K}$ - designates the units 1 - 9 ; (b) From $-\mathbf{~}$, tens; from $F-\Omega$, some of the hundreds, viz. 100-400. The hundreds 500-900, some designate by the final letters, $T, \square, \mathfrak{I}, \boldsymbol{\square}, \mathfrak{Y}$; others by adding to $\Omega(=400)$ the other letters that designate the additional hundreds which are needed, e. g. pr , i. e. $400+100=500$. In composite numbers, the larger stand first; e. $g . \aleph^{4}=11, \aleph כ P=121$, etc. The number 15 is marked $4 \nu=9+6$, because the regular designation would be $\mathrm{in}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$, which (being one of the names of God) the Jews would not employ. Thousands are designated by the unit-letters with two points above them; e. g. $\approx=1000$, etc.
(4) No abbreviations of words occur in the text of the $\boldsymbol{O}$. Test. ; but they are found on coins. In later times the use of them is very frequent among the Jews. When they are employed, they are marked by an oblique stroke;
 Th or

## § 6.

Pronunciation and Division of the Consonants.

1. A more exact insight into the original sound of each consonant is of the greatest importance, because many grammatical
peculiarities and changes ( $\$ 18$ seq.) are dependent on the pronunciation, and are comprehensible only in this way. We obtain our knowledge of this, partly from the pronunciation of the kindred dialects ; partly from the living Arabic; partly from observing the approximation of certain letters to each other and their exchange for one another; and partly from the tradition of the Jews.*

In the usages of the modern Jews, there is much that is contradictory. The Polish and German Jews follow the analogy of the Syriac ; the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, (whom, after the manner of Reuchlin, most Christians follow), more correctly lean to the Arabic.

The oldest and most weighty testimony in regard to pronunciation, is the Hebrew proper names as exhibited by the Septuagint, i. e. the Hebrew written in Greek letters. But the sounds of several Hebrew letters, e. g. $\geq, \ddot{*}$, could not be imitated in Greek; and of course various expedients were resorted to, in order to relieve this difficulty.
2. Several consonants which have peculiarities, should be compared as to their resemblances of sound, and specially investigated.
(1) Among the Gutturals, N is the most slender. It is a scarcely audible impetus of the voice from the lungs, $=$ the spiritus lenis of the Greeks. It is like to the $\pi$, but is more slender. Before a vowel it is almost lost to the ear, ( $\downarrow$ Nָ,,$\stackrel{\alpha}{\alpha} \mu \varrho)$ ), like the $h$ in the French habit, homme. Still more imperceptible is it after a vowel, and indeed it altogether coalesces with it, ( mâ-tsâ), §23,2.

The $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ before a vowel $=$ our slender $h$, (like the Greek spiritus asper); after a vowel, at the end of a syllable, (when not quiescent), it is a Guttural $=$
 with the vowel, §7, 2. § 14.

Nearest related to $\mathbb{x}$ is $¥$, a letter peculiar to the Semitae. When the stronger sound is given, it is a kind of hoarse quavering $g$ sound, formed in the



[^15]the Arabian, [who has divided it into two letters], the first sound is like a slender guttural $r$; the second is almost like that of a simple vowel, e. g. $\alpha$. At present, Europeans, in reading Hebrew, do not aim to imitate it, but merely sound the vowel which follows or precedes it; as in Eli, Amalek above. A method of expressing the stronger sound by our letters, which comes nearest to the correct oue, would be by gh or rg. [This means a deep guttural, or a quavering guttural sound]. But $y$ is not so strong; so
 erroneous is the Jewish mode of uttering the letter by a nasal gn or ng.

The $\pi$ is the firmest Guttural $=\mathrm{ch},[$ Eng. $h / \mathrm{h}]$, as the Swiss pronounce it; e. g. in Macht [nearly mahht], Zucht (nearly zuhht], aud like to the Spanish guttural $x$ and $j,[\mathrm{i} . \mathrm{e} .=h h]$. In the living language, this letter, [as in the Arabic], was sometimes sounded stronger, and sometimes weaker.*

The Hebrews, moreover, sounded the 7 more as a quavering Guttural, than as a tremulous Lingual. On this account, $\urcorner$ is not merely reckoned with the Liquids, but, as to several of its qualities, it is assigned to the rank of the Gutturals ; § 22, 4.
(2) In Sibilants or hissing letters the Hebrew is richer than the Aramaean; which substitutes for them in part the low broad Linguals.

The letters $\dot{\psi}$ and were originally one and the same, $\ddot{ש}=s h$. They are still so in writings without the vowel-points. But inasmuch as this letter not unfrequently had a more slender sound, almost $=s$, so the grammarians separated the one sound from the other, by the diacritical points, viz. $\dot{\psi}=s h, \dot{\mathscr{V}}=s$ 。
$\mathcal{U}$ in its sound must have approached quite near to 0 ; yet, being nearly related to $\dot{\mathcal{U}}$, it might have been somewhat stronger than 0. At least, a difference of meaning is sometimes grounded on the difference between ig and O; e. g. שָׁבָ to shut up, and to recompense ; שָּבָּ to be dextrous or wise, and $\}=0$ ov to be foolish. The Syrians used, for these two sounds of $s$, only the letter 0 ); the Arabians merely س. In later Hebrew they are often exchanged; e. g. Ecc. 1: 17.

Zayin ( $T$ ) is a slender whizzing $s=$ the Greek $\zeta$, (which the Septuagint employ to represent it), and like the French and English $z$, and quite differfrom the German $\mathrm{z}=t$ s.

The letters $\Xi, P, \Psi$, are uttered with strong articulation from the back part of the mouth. The first two are separated in this way, essentiully, from

[^16]5 and $\Sigma$ which correspond to our $t$ and $k$, and moreover are often softened still more by aspiration, (see No. 3 below). [The צ Roediger marks, in the Alphabet as $=s s$ strongly enunciated. Gesenius, and nearly all Hebrew granmarians, represent it by $t s$ or the German $z$. This seems altogether more probable than the sound assigned it by Roediger, considering that the Hebrew alphabet has (besides this) at least three $s$-es, viz. $0, \mathfrak{e}, \underset{\sim}{i}$, and only one $z, \%$. I have therefore retained $t s$ in the alphabet above.-S.]
 Beghadh-kephath) have a double sound; (1) Like $b, g, d, k, p$, $t$. (?) A weaker sound accompanied with a slight breathing or spiritus; (then called Aspirates). The first sounds (unaspirated) are the original ones. These sounds are employed at the beginning of words and syllables, when not immediately preceded by a vowel; and they are marked by a point in the bosom of the letter (c.g. $\exists=b$, etc.), which is named Daghesh lene, $(\S 13)$. The aspirated pronunciation is employed, when a vowel immediately precedes, [which vowel may be either pure, or have a quiescent letter coalescing with it. The aspirated sounds are represented by $b h$ or $v, g h, d h(=t h$ in that $)$, $k h, p h$, and $t h$.]

In Mss., Raphe (§ 14. 2) stanils over these letters when they are Aspirates; in printed editions, the Daghesh lene is merely omitted, [by which omission the reader knows, of course, that they are Aspirates]. [By one who speaks the English language, $\lambda=g h$ and $\Sigma=k h$ can hardly be pronounced in a different way from $\exists=g$ and $\Xi=k$. The modern Greek easily aspirates $\beta, \gamma, \delta$; and we easily sound $d h$, as directed above. The Greek language, moreover, easily distinguishes $コ, コ ; \unlhd, \Xi ; \curvearrowleft, \curvearrowleft$; e.g. as $=\boldsymbol{\chi}, \boldsymbol{\chi} ; \pi, \varphi ; \boldsymbol{\tau}, \vartheta$. But we have no sound, in English, corresponding to $\Sigma=k h$. The Germans practically make it a Guttural in sound; which can hardly be correct. But the true sound we have no adequate means of as-certaining.-S.]

See more particulars about the distinction of the two sounds, in $\$ 21$. The modern Jews pronounce $\beth$ as $=v$, and the aspirated $\cap$ like $s$; e.g.
 be exactly the English th soft.
4. From what has now been said, a division of the consonants, based upon the organ specially employed to utter them, becomes more intelligible and more useful. They are thus arranged :


Of these, the class most frequently appealed to is the Gutturals; and therefore the student should make them familiar. The letter $\urcorner$ is ranked ahove with the Dentals. But it is often treated as a Guttural, having frequently the like effect upon the vocalization; as will be seen in the sequel.
[Besides these classifications, some others, on a little different ground, are frequent and practically important, viz. (1) The
 which are so called, because their sound frequently quiesces or coalesces in that of the vowel which precedes them. $\kappa$ and $\pi$ are practically Gutturals, only when they do not quiesce.-S.]

A historical view of the pronunciation of the Hebrew, and also of the other Semitic languages, would show, that in more ancient times the enunciation was stronger and firmer; in later ones it flatted away and became weaker and softer. By reason of this, not a few of the earlier and minuter distinctions, attached to modes of pronouncing, were neglected and lost. This shows itself, partly in the substitution of weaker for stronger letters,
 mode of pronouncing particular letters. So in the Syriac, $y$ is throughout only a feeble and soft sound. The Galileans uttered both $y$ and $\pi$ as they did $\kappa$, [i. e. they were scarcely audible]. In Aethiopic, $\dot{\cup}=s$, and $\Pi=h$, i. e. each is of a slender sound.

## §7. <br> Vowels in general; Vowel-Letters and Vowel-Signs.

1. That the leading tones of the vowels $a, e, i, o, u$, sprung from the original vowels $A, I, U$, is more plain in Hebrew and in the Semitic languages, than in any other. $E$ comes from $I$ with preceding short $a$; and $O$ from $U$ in the same way. Both $E$ and $O$ are strictly contracted diphthongs; for $\hat{e}$ comes out of $a i$, and $\hat{o}$ out of $a u$. The process may be thus represented:


The older Arabic did not employ the vowels $\hat{\ell}$ and $\hat{\delta}$, but instead of them employed $a i, \alpha u$; e. g. $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\dagger}$, Arab. bain ; bī, Arab. yaum [i. e. youm]. Later idiom contracted these diphthongs. The like in Greek and Latin; as
 $\hat{0}]$; and so the popular dialect in German, ôch for auch.
2. With this stands connected the designation of the vowels in writing. As there were only three leading vowel-sounds, so no more were originally desiguated ; and even this was done, not by inventing new and appropriate signs, but by employing some of the feebly sounding letters, e. g. ※, $\uparrow, \downarrow$, for this purpose, because their weak sounds easily flowed into the vowel sounds. [In respect to their frequency, as thus employed, and the sounds which they represented, they may be thus arranged:]

| 4 | represented | U and O . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\square$ | " | I and E. |
| $\cdots$ | " | A. |

Explanations. (a) [Vav ( $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$thus employed, resembles the old Latin $\mathbf{V}$ and the old German W, often used as the vowel U ; and Yodh (7) the old Latin I, used for both I and Y. In English, also, Y is both vowel and consonant. The comparative frequency of thus employing these letters is expressed by the order of their arrangement above. $V a v$ is somewhat frequently inserted as a mere vowel ; Yodh, in the same way, but with rather less frequency; and N is altogether rare as standing merely for A , because this vowel is so frequent that it was easily and naturally supplied by the reader].*
(b) Besides the use of these three vowel-letters, (so called when put for a vowel), $H e(\pi)$, at the end of a word, was usually employed for the vowel A long; and much less frequently, $\mathfrak{\kappa}$, in the same way. But both of these letters, $\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\pi}$, sometimes stand for the vowels $\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{O}$. Only familiarity with the language could readily distinguish these diverse cases.
(c) Regularly, the vowel letters represented only the long vowels. But the reader must not suppose, that these letters were always actually inserted where long vowels actually occurred. This would be far from the reality of the case ; for in general only the more doubtful cases were thus distinguished; see §8. 4. $\dagger$ All the other gradations of tone, viz. the short vowels,

[^17]the absence of vowels, and the decision whether one of the above letters was employed as a vowel or a consonant, were left to the skill and judgment of the reader. [In like manner, all the current Arabic writing and correspondence of the present time is destitute of any vowel-signs, and these are left to the reader, excepting the small aid which the vowel-letters occasionally af-

 dibb-bēr (he spake), dăb-bēr (to speak), dō-bhēr (speaking), dŭb-băr (it is said). So nıמ, mä-věth (death), müth, mőth (to die). The like in בין, which is bēn, bin, ba-yin, etc. [The exigency of the sense guided the reader in all such cases.]
(d) It is easy to see how imperfect and exposed to various interpretations a method of writing was, which designated only the stronger elements of speech. Yet such an one, and such only, of the vowels without any proper designation, had the Hebrews, during the whole period when Hebrew was a living language. Reading was of course a much more difficult task than it is among us, inasmuch as we have a much more perfect alphabet. A vernacular knowledge of the language could make up, in some good measure, for these deficiencies; [just as we can read short-hand characters, and, after a little practice, could easily read most words in case the vowels were omitted in the writing.]
3. After the Hebrew language had ceased to be a living one, and there was danger of losing the true pronunciation, and moreover because the doubtful meaning of unpointed words often became perplexing, in order to render plain and establish both of these, the Vowel-signs or Vowel-points were invented.' In this way, whatever remained undetermined before, became permanently established. The particular history of this is indeed wanting; but by a combination of other historical facts we come to the conclusion, that of the Christian era, the system of vocalization was introduced, since the seventh century, by learned Jews well acquainted with the language. This example, it is probable, was followed by the Syrian and Arabian grammarians.

See Ges. Gesch. d. Heb. Sprache, s. 182 ff, and Hupfeld in Theol. Studien und Kritiken, 1830. No. 3 ; where may be found the latest proof, that the Talmud and Jerome make no mention of vowel-signs.
4. The pronunciation of the Palestine Jews probably lies at the ground of the vowel-system; but the analogy of the sister dialects is a good voucher for the correctness of the same, at least in the main or generally. The Punctators laboured to
express all the little gradations of the vowel-sounds, by appropriate signs; and even the half-vowels and the involuntary help-ing-sounds, which all languages adopt but do not usually express by writing, are carefully noted in the Hebrew. During the same modeling of the text of Scriptures, came in also the various reading-signs, (Daghesh, Mappiq, etc. §11—14); as also the Accents, $\S 15 . \S 16$.

Far more simple is the apparatus for the vowels among the Arabians and Syrians. The former have only three signs, according to the ancient classification as described above; the latter, five, viz. $a, e, i, o, u$. This may have been the case with the earlier Hebrews; but the evidences of it are not within our reach.

## § 8. <br> Of the Vowel-Signs.

1. The complete vowels, arranged agreeably to their leading sounds, are as follows:

First Class; A sound.

(b) $=$ Pătăh $=$ ă ; as in $n$ בַ $b a ̆ t h$. (Eng. $a$ in man.)
(c) $-\mathrm{S}^{\circ}$ ghōl = $\ddot{a}$ (Eng. ai in sail, only shorter), when this Soghöl is derived from an original $a$; e. g. in the first syllable of $\ddagger$ mällĕkh. A Seghol of this kind often stands before a
 ed as above.

Second Class; I and E sounds.
( $(a)-$ or $-=I$ long, (like the Eng. $i$ in machine), e.g.
 This is called Hhireq magnum, whether the Yodh is expressed or only implied.
(b) -. short $I$, (Eng. $\bar{\imath}$ in sit), e. g. inax ịmmō; named Hhireq parvum.
(c) -... and $-. .=\hat{e}, \bar{e}$, (Eng. ey and ai as in they, hai-
 Tsere without Yodh.
 (men) ; also $\grave{e}$ with tone, as in $\begin{aligned} & \text { rinn } \\ & h \bar{o} z \dot{e} \\ & \text { (ey } \\ & \text { in the Eng. prey).* }\end{aligned}$

[^18]
(b) -...Qibbūts, usually $\breve{u}$ short (Eng. $u$ in full) ; e. g. 꾸군 g $\breve{u} l-1 \bar{a}$; but oftentimes, also, it stands for Shūréq without (Vav, i. e. Shurrĕq a little abridged, as in mathe mut.

 in slow, sober).
(d) - Qāmēts Hhātūph = ŏ short; e. g. ${ }^{-} \prod_{T} h h o ̆ q . ~(E n g$. $\grave{\square}$ in not).
[Remark. Roediger adds to this last class of sounds, that of abridged e $(-)$
 n. 4), and meelh (from rix). These cases are so very few, (and withal attended by some doubt), that I have deemed it best not to arrange this category with the usual vowel sounds].
The names of the vowels are nearly all made out from the manner in which the mouth is affected in pronouncing them; as is usual among Semitic grammarians. E. g. $\gamma$ ץpp̧ Qāméts, closing (the mouth); Mrng Pătuăhh,


 Qamets $=\check{\sigma} . \quad$ The reason why the same form $(-)$ represented both $a$ long and $\check{o}$ short, $\dagger$ is to be drawn from the impure sound given by the Rabbins

[^19]to the vowel -, like the Sivedish a. [Admitting the Spanish Rabbinic sound of - long, like $\alpha$ in all, (which I can hardly doubt is correct), the near approximation of this to the $\mathbf{O}$ sound is very plain; and as Hholem already represented two O's, so, in certain peculiar circumstances, - was chosen to represent short $\ddot{0}]$. For the cases where it is to be read as $\ddot{o}$, see §9. Note. Ouly S'ghöl (oְ ) borrows its shape from resemblance to an object, as the name means cluster of grapes. All the names give the sound of the vowel in the first syllable, excepting Seghöl, Qïbbüts, and Qämēts Hhätûph.
2. Nearly all the vowel-signs stand under the letter, after which they are pronounced; e. g. $7,7,7,7$, etc. The so-called Puttah furtive, however, under a Guttural at the end of a word, is sounded before it; e. g. חַּר rūahh, see § 22.2.b. Hholem is written over the letter; e. g. is mo, iv mo; Shureq, in the bosom of the Vav, as ${ }^{\text {r2 }} m \bar{u}$.
(a) In some cases, Hholem coincides with the diacritical point over $\dot{\psi}, \dot{\psi}$, and then it is not separately noted; e. g. Shin has two points, and begins a syllable, the lefl one is Iholem, e. g. نשׁing sho-mer; when it has two, and ends a syllable, the right point is a Hholem, e. g. ש่ะัุ. y̆ัr-pōs.
(b) The figure 4 , in different positions, the Vav being a proper consonant, is read ov or vo; e. g. तrt lö-ve, 芹 $\bar{T}$ ävon. In the first case the Hholem belongs to the preceding syllable; in the second, it follows the Vav consonant. The latter, fully written, would be jẹ. Very nice pointing would distinguish the different cases by the position of the Hholem, the first on the right, the second on the left of the top of the 4, and a third ( $=0$ simply) over the middle. But this is hardly practicable with types.
3. The first class of vowels are usually accompanied or marked by no vowel letters $(\$ 7,2)$; excepting ${ }^{n}$ - in the middle, $\Pi_{-}, N_{-}$, at the end, of a word; the other classes usually designate their long vowels by the accompaniment of a vowel-letter or Quiescent. 'Thus *- Hhireq magnum, "- Tsere, ${ }^{n}-$ Seghol protracted; " Shureq, i Hholem. In this way the longest vowels of these classes are distinctively marked.*
4. In writing, however, the Hebrews did not always insert the vowel letters which would distinguish the long vowels of classes II. III. When inserted, they call the method of wri-

[^20]ting, scriptio plena, as 3ip, ap; when omitted, it is named scriptio defectiva, e. g. sibp (for mip), ap (for arl).

The full method is.regularly necessary at the end of words, as a The defective one is usual, when the vowel letter (quiescent) comes in contact with another of the same kind which is a consonant, e. g. artit instead of anti. Beyond this is no general rule; for the same word may be found
 all the same as to sound. (a) In general, (but not uniformly), the defective method prevails as to syllables in the root of a word, which have received an
 nibp, etc. (b) The later O . Test. books abound in the plenè; the earlier in the defective.*
5. When a vowel-letter has a vovel-sign before it which is not kindred or homogeneous, a diphthong arises in the cognate
 guage treats the vowel-letters in such cases as proper consonants; e. g. in the cases above it reads $\bar{a} v, e v, a y, \hat{a} y$.

Thus we have $\prod_{T} v a \dot{v} v,{ }^{4}$ geiv,
 express a diplthongal sound, in such cases, like that of the Arabic; which seems to denote that the older pronunciation of the Hebrew leaned the same way as the Arabic. The modern Jewish method (given above) resembles the modern Greek, where $\alpha \mathfrak{i}, \varepsilon \dot{v},=a v, e v$. In Ms. copies, Yodh and Vav, in cases where they retain a consonant-power, are written with a Mappiq, § 14, 1. $\dagger$

## § 9. <br> Character and powers of the several Vowels.

Numerous as the vowel-signs are, still they do not perfectly

[^21]express all the modifications of sound as to length and shoriness, or as to quick acuted or extended sound; and hence the designation of sounds by means of the vowel-signs, is not always perfectly congruous. I subjoin therefore a brief commentary, in respect to the nature and power of the vowels, and the mutability of the same; comp. § $25 . \$ 27$.

## Class I.; A sound.

1. Qamets proper is everywhere $\bar{a}$ long, and is of two kinds:
(1) That which is essentially long, fixed, and immutable, e. g.
 Arabic, this vowel is accompanied regularly by the Aleph.
(2) The long $\bar{\iota}$ of mere prosody, may stand either in the tonesyllable, or before or after it. Everywhere it springs from short $\breve{a}$, and is found in open and closed syllables;* ( $(\$ 26,3)$. Such a Qamets stands in a closed syllable only when it has the tone or accent; in an open syllable it may precede the tone, and

When the tone is lessened (as in the construct state, §87), the Qamets in question goes over into Pattah, as $\frac{\square}{\top}$ Tָָ , const.
 Qamets pure or prosodial may stand at the end of a word, as in here frequently $i$ quiescent is added to support it, as $\underset{\sim}{ } \times$, usually written -
2. Pattall, as a short $\breve{r}$ in an appropriate sense, stands only in a closed syllable, either with or without the tone, as an and those words which now have Pattah in an open syllable, for the most part originally exhibited it in a closed one; e. g.

For cases in which Pattah is connected with $\times\left(\kappa_{-}\right)$, see $\S 23$, Note 2 . For $\check{a}$ short in Pattah furtive, see $\S 22,2, b$.
3. Seghol, as belonging to the first class of vowels, comes in in the place of Pattah as a more obscure sound, e. g. אַרֶץ for wir Although a curtailed sound, yet it can stand in a tone-syllable, as in $\gamma-\boldsymbol{z}$; and even in a pause-syllable at the end of a verse.

## Class II.; Sound of I and E.

4. Long $\mathrm{I},(=e e$ in seen $)$, is more usually expressed by the

[^22]aid of Yodh，（־－），i．e．written plenè；but if not so writter，the nature of the vowel is not changed（ $\$ 8,4$ ），e．g．

Whether a Hhireq is long when ${ }^{n}$ is omitted，is best decided by a know－ ledge of the grammatical origin and condition of the form；often，from the condition of the syllable（ $\$ 26$ ）；or from the placing of a Methegh（ $\$ 16,2$ ） after it，as ．

5．Short Hhireq（always written defectivè）is commonly used
 vowel is put in the room of $\breve{a}$ shortened；as from $r \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ， （ $=$ ．


The Jewish and older grammarians named every Hhireq written plenè， Hhireq magnum；and every one written defective，Hhireq parvum．But this is an erroneous view of the sounds appropriate to long and to short Hhireq．

6．The longest $\mathrm{E}(\stackrel{-}{-})$ is a contracted sound of the diph－ thong $=(\S 7,1)$ ；which in Arabic and Syriac is employed in－ stead of the Tsere．E．g．Heb．ה־ָּיח，hē－khāl，Ar．Syr．hai－khāl． Such a Tsere is a very long and immutable vowel，and ap－ proaches near to a diphthongal length．The $\square^{-}$is longer than ＂－．Very seldom is ${ }^{n}$－．written clefectivè，as for where both are of the same sound．
At the end of words，the omission of the Yodh is not normal．Seldom in－


7．Tsere without Yodh is long E of a secondary order，and， like the Qamets in Class I．1．No． 2 above，may be in or out of a tone－syllable．In an open syllable，it may have the tone，or be without it，as in tone，as 唃，ל，

8．Seghol，so far as it belongs（as it principally does）to the second Class of vowels，is a short curtailed E sound，arising from the abbreviation of the（－）；e．g．誁 out of $\eta$ ．It arises also from the half－vowel or Sheva $(\$ 10,1)$ ，when a tone is thrown
鿊．Besides this，it forms the usual factitious involuntary vowel of the last syllable in Segholate forms，as in ôg org for る，for
diphthongal $a i$ ，and is long，but not so long as $n_{-}$，and is like the French $\dot{e}$ and German $\ddot{a}$ ；e．g．in त⿱宀⿰丬⿳⿻コ一冖又丶 belongs to Class I．of the vowels．

See further on the rise of Seghol out of other vowels，$\S 27$ ，Note 1，2， 4.

## Class III；Vowels U and O．

9．In the third class，the relation of the two vowels is alto－ gether like that between the two in the second class．One must separate as to the U sound：
（1）The long U，either（a）Written plenè with Shureq（4），as
 vicarious（as the old grammarians name it）is the same in length or quantity as the proper Shureq above．The shortening is merely orthographic．

Comp．Hhireq magnum，in No． 4 above，written plenè and defectivè（ - ，，－）．
（2）The short $\breve{u}$ ，the proper Qibbuts（comp．short Hhireq in No． 5 above）is employed in closed unaccented syllables，and is specially frequent in syllables with a sharpened sound；e．g． －
For this acuted sound，the Seventy usually employ an o as the represen－
 exact expression of the true sound；for they express Hhireq also by $e$ ． Erroneous is it to sound Qibbuts proper as $\bar{u}$ ．

10．The O sound is related to the U ，as in the second class the E stands related to the I．It has four gradations：
（1）The longest $O$ ，which springs from the diphthong au （§7，1）；mostly written plenè，as i（Hholem plenum）；e．g．שטוֹ


（2）Long O，which springs from an obscure original $\hat{a}$ ，and in a tone－syllable is usually written plenè，as Ention ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{h}$ ，Arab． Chald．ělâh．In an unaccented syllable it is usually written de－ fectivé；as qu－tel．
（3）A third O is that which comes from $\stackrel{o}{ }$ or $\breve{u}$ prolonged． When this vowel is shortened，it goes of course into short $\grave{o}$ or
 times it is even shortened into Sheva；e．g．＂קְּ？（yiqq－ $\left.\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{c} \mid \mathrm{u}}\right)$ in－ stead of 4 bp？．Seldom is it written plenè．
(4) The ( - ), when Qamets Hhatuph, is always short, and stands related to Hholem, as Seghol (No. 8 above) to There;
 Qamets with A sound, see in the Notes below.
11. The Seghol belongs here, also, so far as it arises out of a $u$ or o; e. g. xn, from nix from romp. Remarks under Class III. p. 28 above]. For half-vowels (Shivas) see the next $\S$.
12. The following table exhibits a graduated scale of the quantity of vowels from the longest to the shortest. The table does not perfectly exhibit all the transitions or gradations of vowels in the language; but it exhibits a synopsis of the more frequent:

Class I; A.

- longest $\hat{a}$ ( $=$ Arab.
$\mathrm{K}_{\bar{T}}{ }^{\boldsymbol{a}}$ with prolonged tone, ( from short $\check{a}$ or - ) in or out of tone-syllabe.
$=$ short $\check{a}$.
- curtailed $a$.

The most extreme shoptening is the half vowels, $(-,-$,$) , in an open,$ or ( - ) in a closed syllable.


$-\quad \begin{aligned} & \text { (out of } \alpha i \text { ). } \quad i \text { or }-\hat{b} \text { (out of } \hat{a} \text { ob- }\end{aligned}$
$\stackrel{-}{ }-$ or - , long $i[=\mathrm{ee}]$.
$\div$ prolonged tone (out of $\check{c}$ or -$)$, in and out of the tone-syllable.

- short h .
- curtailed $e$.

The most extreme thortening is the half vowels, $\left(\frac{\pi}{n},--\right)$ in an open, or ( - ) in a closed syllable.

> Class III.; U and O. $i \hat{o}$ diphthongal (out of $a u)$. secure).
> 4,,$- \operatorname{long} \dot{u}[=00]$.
> $\therefore$ prolonged $\bar{o}$ (out of $\div o \mathrm{o}$, or - ), in the tonesyllable.
> - short $\check{u}$, specially in a syllable with an acute sound.
> $\rceil$ short ${ }^{\circ}$.
> 〒 obscure e; (see in Cl. II. opposite).

> The extreme shortening is the $\overline{\mathrm{r}}$, - (Shivas), in an open syllable; $\breve{u}-$, or $\mp(\breve{\sigma})$, in a closed one.

Note. On separating Qamets from Qamets Hhatuph.
It is an incongruity in the vowel system, that $(\bar{\tau})$ is employed both for $\dot{a}$
 ed with the derivation of words which is the best guide), will derive aid from the following rules: viz.
(1) The sign ( - ) is short ob in a closed syllable, without the tone; for such a syllable cannot have a long vowel ; $\S 26,3$. The examples are of various kinds:
(a) When a Sheva follows which is silent, i. e. stands at the end of a syl-
 $(-)$, then it is read as $\bar{a}$ long, and stands in an open syllable; e. g. zà-kherà; see § 16, 1 .
(b) When Daghesh forte immediately follows ( -7 ), it is read as ŏ; e. g.
 after the Qamets, the ( - ) is short, e، g. $\quad$. stands regularly on the antepenult syllable, and is put here for that reason, and not to affect the quantity of the vowel.
(c) When Makkeph follows ( - ), it is short $\check{\circ}(\$ 16,1)$; e. g. hā-«̌̄-dhām. (The accent falls away from the ${ }^{-2}$ כָּ before a Makkeph, see § 16, as above.)
(d) When the end-syllable is a closed one, without the tone; e. g. 日p:rin văy-yă-qöm. But let it be well noted, that in this last case, $(-)$ sometimes reads as $\hat{a}$ long, when the syllable is closed and the accent is thrown off;
 inserted here after the vowel-sign.*
 has the tone, $\S 26,4$.
(2) More seldom is it, and indeed it properly belongs to the exceptions $(\S 26,3)$, when the sign ( -$)$ stands in an open syllable, and still is read as o $\check{\sigma}$ short. This takes place: (a) When Hhateph Qamets follows that vowel-sign;
 òl-kả. (c) Two words (even in Mss.) have - (short $\check{o}$ ) as a substitute for $\bar{\tau}$, i. e. Hhateph Qamets; which are


In these cases, the ( - ) has every where a Methegh (, )after it, although it is short $\delta$, inasmuch as Methegh belongs to the second syllable before the tone-syllable. The exceptions that occur can be judged of only hy gram-

 $\mathrm{hh}^{0}{ }^{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{I}$ ăph, in a glow of anger, the article is omitted. [While the two cases appear alike, they are in reality substantially diverse].
§ 10.
Half-Vowels and Syllable-divider.

1. Besides the full vowels, of which the preceding section has treated, the Hebrew has a class of very rapid vowel-sounds, which are called Half-Vowels. $\dagger$ They are to be regarded as

[^23]the greatest possible shortening of the vowels, and as it were the remains of fuller and more definite vowel-sounds belonging to an earlier period of the language.

The principal of these rapid sounds is an exceedingly short, rapid and indefinite vowel, a kind of half $e$, which is called $\mathrm{SH}^{\mathrm{E}}$ VA.* This is called simple Sheva, in distinction from the composite Shevas, (see No. 2 below); also vocal or moveable Sheva, in distinction from itself when it is silent, and merely a sign of the division of syllables, (No. 3 below). This last, viz. silent Sheva, stands under a consonant when ending a syllable; while Sheva vocal stands under a consonant when beginning a syllable.

The vocal Sheva may be, (a) At the beginning of a word; as $3_{i \pm p} \mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{e}}$ tōl. (b) In the middle of a word; as qo-tela, pequequt-telu. Cases where Daghesh is implied, but omitted in the writing, are of the same nature; e. g.
 ha-meshol, (where the $ה$ הַ is an interrogative). Probably $\boldsymbol{Z}$ (not mal-khe). [If the Punctators had read this word as Roediger does, would they not have written it ng? ? ?

Very short $\check{e}$ is the normal sound of Sheva ( - ); but it is quite probable that the living pronunciation attached other sounds also to it. The Seventy
 $\alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta \lambda \frac{v i ̈ \alpha}{}$; oftener however by $\alpha$, as 3 ,
 $\mu \tilde{\omega} \nu$, תincy ages teach respecting Sheva. $\ddagger$

How the Sheva-sound arose by means of rapidly sounding the stronger vowels, is manifest in such words as ${ }^{n}$ the older sound being $\underset{\substack{\text { כָ }}}{\text { ™ }}$, as in Arabic. The Arabic, moreover, employs proper short vowels instead of Shevas vocal.

Sheva vocal cannot form a closed syllable, i. e. one ending in a consonant; but it forms a rapid open syllable, of the slightest

[^24]kind．The rules for Methegh show this，in § 16，2．Besides， when a tone falls on a Sheva－syllable，it is prolonged；e．g．her ， － per syllable，but not sufficient of itself to support an intonation］．

2．Besides the Sheva simple described above，the Hebrew has three other half－vowels of the like nature，distinguished by the epithet Hhateph（ 5 （Tָח），and called composite Shevas，because they are orthographically made up of a proper short vowel and simple Sheva．These three correspond to the three original classes of the proper vowels $(\$ 7,1)$ ，and are as follows：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (-) \text { Hhateph Pattale; e. g. in ר } \\
& \text { (ㅍ) Hhateph Seghol; e. g. in }
\end{aligned}
$$

These are specially employed，（at least the first two），under the four Gut－ turals，$\kappa, \pi, \pi, z,(\$ 22,3)$ ．They serve，under these letters，to make the pronunciation of them more plain and distinctive．
Note．Two of these composite Shevas，viz．（ ${ }_{-i}$ ）and（ ${ }_{r:}$ ），are sometimes associated with letters not guttural．The other $\left({ }_{m}\right)$ is joined with Gutturals only．
（1）Hhateph Pattah sometimes is put in the room of Sheva simple：（a） Where the latter would regularly stand under a letter with Daghesh forte， but the Daghesh is omitted，and then this composite Sheva is employed； e．g．עֲ⿰亻⿱丶⿻工二又寸
 Deut．5：24．Comp．Gen．27：26，38．Yet these usages are not uniform，but only occasional．
（2）Hhateph Qamets is much less frequent under Gutturals，than the other two composite Shevas．Under other letters it somewhat frequently takes the place of a normal Sheva simple：$(a)$ When an $\mathbf{O}$ sound falls out，but the same sound，made as rapid as possible，is retained instead of a normal

 （b）When Daghesh falls out（comp．1．a above）；e，g．החָ
 site seerns to be occasioned by the following Guttural and the preceding Shureq．）

3．Sheva simple is also a divider of syllables；in which case it is quiescent，merely denoting the end of a syllable．（In Ara－ bic，Jesm（ ${ }^{\circ}$ ）stands for such a divider）．It is written at the end of every closed syllable，（which terminates of course with a con－
sonant), unless it be the final syllable of a word. Here it is always omitted, excepting in two cases: (a) In a 7 final; e. g. in \#ֶ. (b) When two consonants stand at the end of a final syl-

It would seem, however, that Sheva, at the end of the latter examples, might well be regarded as vocal ; for it is plain that it represents a proper



## § 11. <br> Of the Reading Signs.

In the most intimate connection with the vowel-signs, stand the reading signs, which are of contemporary origin with them. (1) We have the diacritical point over $\dot{\sim}$ and $\mathfrak{i}$, in order to distinguish them; see p. 22. Then, (2) All the consonants, except the Gutturals, may take a point in the bosom of them; which has, according to circumstances, three different meanings, to be explained in the sequel. Besides this, there is, in Mss., a small horizontal stroke, called Raphe, over certain letters, which indicates that the soft pronunciation of them is to be adopted; see § 14.

## § 12.

Of Daghesh in general, and Daghesh forte in particular.

1. Daghesh denotes, (a) The doubling of the letter in which it is inserted, when it is called Daghesh forte; e. g. (b) The harder pronunciation of the Aspirates ( which case it is called Daghesh lene.
The root דגֹש , from which comes, means (in Syriac) to pierce or bore through; and accordingly Daghesh is usually explained, after its shape, as meaning point. But the name of all like signs is explained by its grammatical use ; which here, however, stands related to the form. In the language of grammar, doubling it. (2) To harden a letter, i. e. to utter it hard or without aspiration. Hence ness; (just as ${ }^{\text {Pngun, proferens, stands for a sign of prolongation or enlarge- }}$

[^25]ment, $(\$ 14)$. A point, made by the sharp end of the stylus, is the representative of these processes. (In a way analogous to this, a point, i. e. a form of a pointed instrument, called obelisk (lance-point), denoted that the letter or words to which it was affixed were to be considered as expuncta or expunged). The opposite to Daghesh is Raphe ( ${ }^{-}$), see § 14. 2. As a proof that Daghesh hardens the sound of letters in various ways, what is said in §22. 3 may suffice.
2. Most important is Daghesh forte, which is a sign that the letter is to be doubled.

This may be compared with the Sicilicus of the old Latins, e. g. Luculus for Lucullus; or the old method of printing, in German and some other languages, $\overline{\mathrm{m}}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{n}}$ for these letters doubled respectively. In unpointed Hebrew, this, with all other reading signs, is omitted.

As to the cases in which it is employed, see $\$ 20$; where its various kiuds are also described.
§ 13.

## Of $\boldsymbol{D}$ aghesh lene.

1. Daghesh lene as the sign of simply hardening the sound of a letter, has relation only to the Aspirates, viz., , , It means that they are to be pronounced with their original hard sound, and without any aspiration, i. e. that they have a slender


2. The cases where this occurs, see in $\$ 21$, viz. exclusively at the commencement of words and syllables. Hereby it may easily be distinguished from Daghesh forte; inasmuch as no doubling is feasible in the cases just stated. E. g. Daghesh is forte in
3. When Daghesh forte is inserted in one of the Aspirates, the aspiration is excluded, so that the Daghesh answers two purposes, viz. that of hardening, and that of doubling the letter; e. g. אूּ ap-pi (not aph-pi), nime rak-koth.

It lies in the nature of the thing, that where the letter is to be doubled, the soft pronunciation is less feasible. Greek words, imitating the Hebrew, show that Daghesh hardens in the Aspi-


The West Aramaean employs no Daghesh, but still the letter is hardened in which the Daghesh by analogy would be inserted; e. g. pox̣ ăp-pēq, in Syriac reads $a$-peq.

## § 14.

## Mappiq and Raphe.

1. Mappiq is also a point in the bosom of a letter; but it is limited, even in Mss., to the Quiescents $\kappa, \pi, \downarrow, \square$, and shows merely that these letters thus marked claim the stronger pronunciation, viz. that of consonants, and not that of vowels. In our printed Hebrew, Mappiq is not employed in connection with $\aleph, \downarrow, \downarrow$, but is used only in the ( $\triangle$ ); and in this, only at the end of a word. In the beginning or middle of a word, $\pi$ is of course understood to be vocal as a consonant, and needs no mark. In


No doubt that such a He (m) was spoken harder, like the Arabic $H e$ at the end of a syllable. In Mss., Mappiq is found in and under $\propto, \downarrow$, $\downarrow$, also to indicate a consonant-power in the following manner: ?

The word מַּפּי means producens, prolonging, i. e. a sign that the letter in which it stands, is to be produced or articulately pronounced. Its resemblance to Daghesh is not in the form only, (which is the same), but the design is of the same nature, i. e. to indicate the strong sound of the letter. Raphe (No.2) is the opposite of both.
2. Raphe (חจָּ, weak) is a small horizontal stroke over a letter, and indicates, as said above, the opposite of Daghesh and Mappiq, viz. that the letter is to be pronounced softly or with aspiration.
[In accurate Mss, all the Aspirates (쿡ำ have always either a Daghesh or a Raphe; e. g. like שָׁman , etc, Printed Bibles omit it, excepting here and there a solitary case, where it serves a special purpose; e. g. in M פְ Judg. 16: 28, shows that the Daghesh lene is omitted in the $n$; in Job 31: 22, 2 , these notations, the various printed copies do not agree.-S.]

## § 15. <br> Of the Accents.

1. The general design of the Accents is to mark the rhythmi-

[^26]cal arrangement of a verse, in the text of the O. Test. But a twofold purpose is subserved in doing this. The accents mark partly the logical relation of each word to the whole sentence, and partly the tone-syllable of each particular word. In the first respect the accents perform the part of interpinction-signs; in the last they subserve the ordinary purposes of accents, viz. to mark the tone.
The Jews regard them also as declamation or recitative signs, marking the highness and lowness or variations of the voice in reciting; and they follow them in reading the Scriptures in their Synagogues. Moreover, this use of the accents is dependent on the general rhythmical design of them.
2. As signs of the tone, the different accents are all equivalent to each other; for there is only one kind of tone in Hebrew. In most words, the tone rests on the last syllable; seldom (comparatively) on the penult. The first case is named Milra

 mé-lekh. 'The antepenult never has the tone; but it often has a kind of half accent, marked by Methegh ( - ), §16.2.
3. So far as the accents are signs of interpunction, their use is of a complicated nature; for they are not barcly signs of separation, (like our period, colon, comma), but in part they are signs of conjunction. Hence they are distributed into Distinctives (Domini), and Conjunctives (Servi). Moreover some are appropriate only to those poetical books which have a more strenuous rhythm, i. e. Job, Psalms, Proverbs. The following is a synopsis of them, arranged according to their respective power as signs of interpunction :

## A. Distinctives, (Domini).

I. Largest Distinctives, (Imperatores), like our period and colon:

1. (-) Silluq (end), only at the end of a verse; where it is always followed by a (: ) Soph Pasuq, i. e. end of a verse, which marks the close of each verse.
2. ( - ) Athnahh (respiration); mostly in the middle of a verse; [=colon or semicolon].
3. ( - - ) Merkha with Mahpalkh;** $[=$ semicolon, marking the close of a $\sigma$ rixos].
II. Larger Distinctives, (Reges); viz. 4. (") Segholta ††. 5. (:-) Zaqeph-Qātōn. 6. (—) Zaqeph Gädhōl. 7. (-) Tiphha.
III. Smaller Distinctives, (Duces); 8. (-) Rebia. 9. (~) Zarqa $\dagger$. 10. ('—) Pashta $\dagger \dagger$. 11. ( - ) Yethibh $\dagger$. 12. (-) Tebhir. 13. (-) Shalsheleth*. 14. (-) Tiphha initial $\dagger$.
IV. Smallest Distinctives, (Comites-Counts); 15. $(-)$ Pazer. 16. $\left.{ }^{( }-\right)$Qarne Phara. 17. ( $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$Great Telishat. 18. (' - ) Geresh. 19. (" - ) Double Geresh. 20. (1) Pesiq (between words).

## B. Conjunctives, (Servi).

21. (-) Merka. 22. ( - ) Munalh. 23. (, - ) Double Merka. 24. ( - ) Mahpalkh. 25. ('-) Kadma. 26. (-) Darga. 27. ( - ) Yerahh. 28. ( - ) Little Telisha $\dagger \dagger$. 29. ( - )
 Mahpakh with Zarqa*.

## remarks on the accents.

## I. Accents as signs of the tone.

1. As in Greek ( $\varepsilon i \mu i$ and $\varepsilon i \mu t$ ), and in other languages, words are sometimes distinguished merely by the tone or accent ; so also in Hebrew, words of the same consonants and vowels are sometimes distinguished by the tone; e. g. דָּ They built), ing).
2. Normally an accent stands on the tone-syllable of a word, viz. on the consonant which begins the syllable. But there are some accents (marked $\dagger$ above), that can stand only on the first letter of a word, which are called Praepositive; others (marked $\dagger \dagger$ above), which can stand only on the last letter of a word, and these are called Postpositive. Of course, neither of these two kinds point out with certainty the tone-syllable, [for they may fall on it, and may not], and we must resort to other means in such a case, in order to find out the accented syllable; [of which analogy is the principal one].

[^27]3. As in grammatical treatises we often need to mark a tone-syllable to the eye of the reader, there is a general agreement among grammarians to mark this uniformly by the sign $(-)$; which is employed in this volume.

## II. Accents as signs of Interpunction.

4. In respect to this, every verse is regarded as a complete period, [while the fact is often otherwise], and is concluded by a Silluq, [with a Soph Pasuq].* Grammarians, using figurative language, name the portion which thus belongs to a verse the domain (ditio) of Silluq, over which Silluq reigns as Imperator. The domain, therefore, is small or great, in proportion to the length of the verse. In the larger verses, stand arranged under this imperator several domini, greater or smaller, as the domain may be, dividing the verse [like our interpunction], into greater and smaller classes.
5. Only those words which stand closely related to each other, can be joined by a conjunctive accent, (Servus). [Normally] two conjunctives do not follow each other, [when several words are intimately connected], but the conjunction is brought about by employing a Maqqeph between words, § 16. 1.
6. In very short verses few or no conjunctive accents are employed. The smaller distinctives subserve, in a measure, the like purpose, (servit domino majori). On the contrary, in very long verses, the Conjunctives are used for the smaller Distinctives, ( funt legati dominorum).
7. The choice of this or that Distinctive or Conjunctive depends on subtile laws of consecution; of which the beginner in Hebrew need take no particular notice. For his purpose it will be sufficient to make himself acquainted with all the larger Distinctives, which may be compared to our period, colon, semi-colon, and comma. But he will soon see, that some of these often stand where he would make either no suspension of the discourse, or at most only a half-comma. Most important of all are the larger accents in poetry; inasmuch as they determine the length of the respective $\sigma$ rixoı. (See Ges. Lesebuch, Vorer. zur 2d Abth. No. 6).
§ 16. Of Maqqeph and Methegh.
Both of these stand in the closest connection with the Accents:
8. Maqqeph (n尺ŋy, i. e. the connecter) is a small cross-line near the upper part of words and between them; and it so con-

[^28]nects them, that they are regarded as only one word in respect to tone and interpunction, and accordingly they have but one accent. From two to four words can be united by a Maqqeph.
E.g. monosyllabic words, $ל \mathrm{k}$, ת (sign of Acc.), qeph after them, [on account of their necessary connection with another word]. On the other hand, a long word may be cunnected with a short

 sion of Maqqeph depends on the principle, that two Conjunctives should not follow each other. When the sense connects intimately several words, Maqqeph is employed to relieve the difficulty.
2. Methegh, (גที่, check, bridle), is a small perpendicular stroke on the left of a vowel-point, and forms a kind of delay or half accent, or a reaction in tone with respect to the accents as signs of the leading tone. It shows, that we must not hasten the vowel on which it depends, but give it a distinctness of enunciation. It stands regularly on the vowel of the antepenult syllable, when the last syllable has the tone; or on the third syllable back of the tone; and it may connect itself with either a long or a short vowel; e. g. te-khem.

In finding the place of the Methegh, Sheva vocal, and the composite Shevas,

 even a simple Sheva mobile may receive a Methegh ; e. g. קָדָאֹ, [both words are here considered as one, No. 1 above]. In this last case, the Jewish grammarians name the Methegh N Nate gay-yã. Some of them extend this appellation to Methegh in general.

Methegh serves a purpose of some importance to learners. E. g. Qamets and Hhireq are known to be long before a Sheva, by reason of it ; as
 ple: Methegh must le on the antepenult; if rightly placed $\geqslant$ must count as a syllable, and its Sheva of course be vocal. Consequently Qamets in such an open syllable must be long, §26, 3. So . See the rules for distinguishing Qamets Hhatuph, $\$ 9$, Note.
[Note. Roediger has stopped far short here of solving all the cases of Methegh which occur. (a) If the antepenult be a closed syllable, and there is another open syllable before it, the Methegh is put upon that open one; e. g. (b) When the antepenult is a closed syllable, Methegh
may be put on it so as to create another syllable; e. g. חy y la-menatstseahh, But this is only in cases where there is some particular need of making the vowel of the antepenult somewhat distinctive; for cases everywhere occur of closed antepenults without a Methegh; e. g. "iִ? ? Eninin, nuํu쿤, Gen. 1: 9. (c) Methegh is not unfrequent on a normally
 after the Methegh is put on such syllables, it stands on the anlepenult, because (in the way of reckoning above stated) the word, which was of itself dissyllabic, then becomes trissyllabic. There are many cases of this sort. (d) When there are four syllables, Methegh often stands on the first syllable when closed; as in
 monosyllables before Maqqeph (penult as reckoned) may take Methegh; e. g. .


Moreover the Conjunctives frequently take the place of Methegh, where two accents are written on the same word; e. g. Entern, where Methegh would normally be under the syllable tr, which now has Munath, a Conjunctive.
It is indeed of little serious consequence to the reader of Hebrew, at the present day, to understand all these minutiae, some of which savour of conceit, some of excessive concern about marking the niceties of enunciation, and some of a design to distinguish the different component elements of a word. But the student, who should have before him only Roediger's development and principles, must find himself embarrassed and indeed nonplus'd on every page, if he aims at acquiring an entire knowledge of Methegh. To know even that a thing is in part arbitrary and inconstant, is not unimportant.-S.]

## § 17.

Of Qeri and Kethibh.
On the margin of our Hebrew Bibles are many Lectiones Vurice ( $(\$ 3,2)$, which are named ${ }^{2}$, i. e. which should be read, because, as the Jews aver, they are readings preferable to those in the text, which is technically called $\begin{gathered}\text { an } \\ \text {, i. e. that which is }\end{gathered}$ written. The vowels which belong to the Qeri, however, are not printed under it, but under the Kethibh in the text. The reader must transfer these to the Qeri or marginal word, in order to read as the Jews do.
E. g. Jer. 42: 6, the text is wher, which is not readable; but on the margin, the Qeri exbibits אבחנ, which is to be read with the vowels of the other
word, viz. אֲגַחִּנ. A small circle is put over a Kethibh word, to give notice that there is another reading. As to the value of the Qeri, see Ges. Geschich. der Heb. Sprache, s. 50, 75.

## CHAPTER II.

## § 18. <br> Peculiarities and Changes of Letters, Syllables, and Accents.

In order to understand correctly and entirely the changes which the forms of several parts of speech undergo, it is necessary to take a survey of the general laws on which those changes are dependent. They are grounded, partly on the peculiar condition of certain classes of letters, in themselves considered, or in their combination into syllables; partly on certain usages of language in respect to syllables and the tone.
$\S 19$.
Changes of the Consonants.

The changes which occur in the consonants, through the formation of words, flexion, euphony, or foreign influence, are EXCHANGE, ASSIMILATION, OMISSION, ADDITION, and transposition.

1. Most naturally those consonants are exchanged, which are of similar enunciation, and are uttered with the same organ.
 and $\xi^{4}$ - as plur. endings; $;$
 toward Aramaeism, the harsher and rougher letters were sometimes ex-
 laugh. In like manner the Sibilants are exchanged with the corresponding


This exchange, however, belongs rather to lexical than grammatical discussion, with which we are here occupied. To the grammatical belong: (a) The exchange of $n$ with $v$, in Hithpael ( $\S 53$ ). (b) Of Vav with Yodh in verbs Pe Yodh ( $\$ 68$ ); e. g.
2. Assimilation is most usually brought about, by the change of a letter which concludes a syllable into the same letter that begins the next syllable; so that, in this way, a doubling or double sound of the letter is occasioned. E. g. in Latin, illustris for inlustris, diffusus for disfusus, etc. In Hebrew this takes place most frequently :
(a) When a syllable ends with a weak nasal g, particularly before the harder consonants; but before Gutturals, the a more commonly remains unassimilated.
 Gutturals, however, z usually remains, as in ?יִּ, ; and sometimes the like

(b) In a few cases, and but a few, assimilation takes place in respect to ${ }^{3}, 7, n$.
E. g. times used instead of a $\urcorner$, as for for for

Note 1. In all these cases, the assimilated letter is written as a Daghesh forte in the letter which follows; excepting that, when this Daghesh would come to be written in the end of a word, it is omitted because the end let-


 latter cases, the assimilated letter has not Sheva under it, but a Seghol; [which however is merely a helping-vowel in such cases, and does not prevent assimilation]. See $\$ 28,4$.

Note 2. More seldom is a weaker letter swallowed up by a stronger pre-


3. An entire omission or casting away of a consonant is specially appropriate to letters of a breathing sound, to the vowelletters, and to the liquids:
(a) At the beginning of words (aphaeresis), when a weak consonant has

(b) In the middle of words (contraction), when the Sheva precedes such a

 4.

Freer and bolder changes took place in earlier times, especially in casting away letters at the end of words; e. g. אָ can come only from
from $n \rightarrow \pi$ (article) from (?), §97. To the same category belongs the curtailing of the fem. ending in 5 - into $n-; \$ 44,1 . \S 79,2$.
4. In order to facilitate the pronunciation, an $\approx$ prosthetic is sometimes prefixed to words; e. g. :

5. The transposition of letters seldom occurs in the bounds of grammar; it principally belongs to lexicography.
 because st is easier to utter than $t s$. In lexicography, not a few
 and $\begin{gathered}\text { שַּלְּ } \\ \text { (clothing). Mostly, such changes are concerned with }\end{gathered}$ the Sibilants and Liquids.

Consonants that are weak, at the end of a syllable, may flatten away into a vowel-sound; e. g. घis from ${ }^{\prime \prime} v$, chevaux (shevo) out of cheval, and the Hebrew, out of אֵֵּׁ, (where the Seghol is merely a helping vowel).*
§ 20.

## Doubling of the Consonants; when it lakes place and when omitted.

1. The doubling of consonants by Daghesh forte, takes place, and is necessary or essential:
(a) When the same letter must be repeated without an inter-

(b) When the same repetition takes place in consequence of assimilation, $(\$ 19,2)$; e. g. g . T ? for ed Daghesh compensative.
(c) When a consonant, originally single, must be doubled in
 is called Daghesh characteristic.

The same letter doubled must be fully written out, whenever a vowel, even of the shortest kind (Sheva) comes between. Of course: (a) After a
 must be done, when Daghesh forte belongs to the first of the two letters,
 two letters of the same kind come together, which really belong to two dif-


[^29]word are suffix-pronouns. (d) When the form comes, by declension, from another which has a vowel between the doubled letters ; e. g. .
 (written anomalously as to the second 7 , which should have a Daghesh lene)
 true solution of these anomalons cases is, probably, that of an attempt to copy the niceties of living traditionary pronunciation.]
2. Besides the cases above described, there are some, where Dagluesth forte is inserted merely in the way of euphony, [or as a means of preserving the niceties of traditional pronunciation]; which is then called Daghesh euphonic. This belongs not at all to the essence of words, [but pertains merely to the enunciation of some particular words], and is not the subject of any rule or fixed principle:
(1) Tivo words, the first of which ends in a vowel, are sometimes drawn closer together by inserting a Daghesh forte in the first letter of the second; in which case they are read as if they were one word. This is Daghesh forte conjunctive.

 ning nix ga-og-ga-a. Sometimes the two words are even drawn into one
 กール. Comp. Lat. reddo for re-do; Ital. alla for a la; Neapol. le llagreme for le lagrime. [All these are mere niceties in reading; have no effect on the substantial forms of words; and are regulated, as has already been said, by no fixed principles].
(2) When the final consonant of a closed syllable is designed to be so pronounced as to make the preceding syllable sharp, a Daghesh forte euphonic is added to it.
E. g. (צָּנְבּ (for 58: 3. Job 17: 2. 1 Sam. 28: 10. Ps. 45: 10. [Unless the student knows this, the Daghesh in question will greatly perplex him. But the cases of this nature are few; and the whole matter is merely one of euphony, or at most it belongs merely to tradition, and is controlled by no fixed principles].

On Grecian monuments ortlography is found like to the above; e.g. ${ }_{\alpha} \varrho \iota \sigma \sigma \tau o \varsigma, \tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \tau \alpha \iota,{ }^{'} A \sigma \sigma x \lambda \eta \pi \iota o \varsigma$. So in the old German of Luther's time, anndere, unnsere.
(3) The final tone-syllable in a verse or a clause, is sometimes furnished with a Daghesh forte (\$29.4), in order to give notice of a little more delay and emphasis upon it.

3. On the other hand, [the same nicety in preserving the traditionary pronunciation] has omitted the Daghesh forte in many cases where it belongs by analogy :
(a) Always at the end of words, i. e. in the final sound, for this syllable cannot normally be sharpened. As a compensation for the Daghesh omitted, the vowel of the syllable is usually lengthened.

The Hebrews sounded a final syllable with a double letter (implied in the Daghesh omitted), as we do in all, call, small, i. e. with a long vowel. So doubtless in Latin, fel, Gen. fellis (two l's); meel, Gen. mellis; also old
 M- (1 with Dag.). Exceptions are few; e. g. mx (short vowel), so mizy, Ezek. 16: 33.
(b) Very often is Daghesh omitted in the interior of a word, where it would by analogy be inserted.
E. g. הַחבּקַשְׁם ham-bhaq-shim, rapidly pronounced instead of ham-mebhaq-qe shim. [This shows why Daghesh lene is omitted in the $\fallingdotseq$ of the first word]. Comp. Greek $\tilde{\alpha} \lambda \tau o$ for ${ }^{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \varepsilon \tau 0$.
(c) Daghesh forte is altogether excluded from the Gutturals; § 22. 1.

Remarks. In the case (b), Daghesh cannot be omitted, when it is essential to preserve the nicety of the form of a word; nor can it be omitted even in the Aspirates, when essential to guide their pronunciation; e. g. אֲ
 practice is to insert Daghesh forte wherever it belongs ; yet practice not unfrequently omits it as stated above; and in the Praeformatives $\Rightarrow$ and $n$, it is

 a vowel or half vowel is put under a letter with Daghesh, in order to make



Note. In the later books, the Daghesh forte is sometimes compensated
 etc., 1 Chron. 21: 23.
> § 21.
> Aspiration of the Tenues; when it takes place, and when not.
> The harder but more slender sound of the Tenues* (5.

[^30]was probably the original one, out of which the weaker and more aspirated sound was formed, $(\$ 6,3$. $\S 13)$. The original hard sound is most purely preserved at the beginning of a word and after a consonant; while between two vowels, and in the end of a syllable, it is softened by the breathing accompanying the vowel. In accordance with this principle the Aspirates take a Daghesh lene:

1. In the beginning of words, whenever the preceding word ends in a consonant which has no vowel; also in the beginning of a paragraph, sentence, or clause.
 whenever a distinctive accent precedes, as Zaqeph Gadhol, a distinctive accent, precedes the ; but without a distinctive it reads thus, thong (actually there are no such in Hebrew), produces the same effect; e. g. 군
2. Daghesh lene is inserted, where the preceding letter is a consonant, destitute of a proper vowel, and having Sheva silent;
 Daghesh lene is omitted; e. g. .

Exceptions. (a) Those forms are excepted here, which have been derived, either by lengthening or shortening, from other forms containing in them any of the aspirated Begadhkephath; e. g. :ִִ ridh-phu (not
 from ゴּלְ. On the other hand,
 still not quite a complete view of the subject. Loose prefixes do not usually
 But usage varies; for we have ל? lin-pol, and others of like character. Closer formative prefixes are considered as making a part of the word; and so we find
(b) In such forms as min in , we should expect $\pi$ (not m) because this letter seemingly follows a vowel. But then this vowel is a mere furtive one, and does not influence the letter that follows. Comp. § $28,4$.
 are preceded by a Sheva vocal ; § $57.3, b$.
(d) The nature and place of the tone appears sometimes to affect the pro-
 usually; but in Ezek. 40: 43,
(e) Aspirates before 5.- final fern. ending, usually omit Daghesh lene;

（f）［Some words beginning with two Aspirates，viz．ココ，ミコ，ニコ，admit a Daghesh lene，even when they follow a word ending with a vowel，and
 14：17．Is．10：19，al．But in respect to this point，editions differ．Besides all cases mentioned above，there are certain words that by usage claim ex－

 it is read as
［Remarks．In some of the detail，there are no fixed principles．The Masora，the Rabbins，Mss．，and editions，differ from themselves and from each other，in regard to some cases．Nor is this of any importance to the student．The most he needs to know is，when Daghesh is forte，when com－ pensative，when merely euphonic，and when lene．The euphonic and lene have nothing to do with the meaning of words，but only with the mode of pro－ nouncing them．It is owing to differences in regard to the pronunciation merely，that there are so many seeming anomalies in respect to Daghesh lene． The same is true of Daghesh euphonic．The student should know this；and this knowledge may save him much useless labour．In Greek，examples are not wanting of a similar variation in certain letters；e．g．$\vartheta \varrho i \xi$ ，Gen．$\Longleftarrow \varrho \nprec \circ ́ \varsigma$ ，a variation of the commencing sound，without affecting the sense of the word． —S．］

## §22． <br> Qualities of the Gutturals．

The four Gutturals，$\kappa, \pi, \pi, y$ ，have a sound peculiar to themselves，on account of certain qualities now to be stated， which they possess in common，but in regard to which they are divisible into two classes，viz．$\kappa$ and $\geqslant$ the more slender，and $\pi$ and $\pi$ the more hard and full．

1．The Gutturals cannot be doubled；and therefore cannot receive a Daghesh forte．The difficulty of doubling such as－ pirated sounds，is apparent to all who make the experiment． The natural consequence of not doubling a Guttural，is to com－ pensate for want of duplication by lengthening the preceding vowel，when this can be done．This rule applies specially to $x$ and $s$ ，the weak Gutturals．The stronger ones，$\pi, \pi$ ，can more easily bear a sharpened sound，than the weak ones，and thus imitate as it were a doubling；and therefore short vowels may be retained before them，［inasmuch as the compensation is less needed．］

 made. It is on this account, that the older grammarians speak (not unaptly) of a Daghesh implicitum, occultum, or delitescens, in this case; e. g. $\begin{aligned} & \text { צחִ }\end{aligned}$

2. The Gutturals most easily and most frequently take the vowel Pattah before them; and this because it stands organically related to them. [Gutturales amant Pattah]. This matter is regulated thus:
(a) When before a Guttural there occurs analogically an $\grave{\imath}$, $\breve{e}$ short, or $\bar{e}, \bar{o} \operatorname{long}$ and pure, i. e. mercly prosodial, the Pattah takes the place of these.
 place, if such was the original form, or a kindred form. Thus, Kal rè Imper, $\boldsymbol{\pi}$; Imperf.

(b) If the vowel is long and immutable, as $4,4,4$, and (sometimes) -, ( $\$ 25.1$ ), it remains, but glides off with a short $\breve{a}$ (Pattah furtive), which is written under the Guttural. But this takes place only in a final syllable.
 hish-liahh, etc. But any accession to the close of the word throws out the Pattah furtive, which can stand only in the closing syllable; e. g. "חִּ ruhin (my spirit), etc. The Seventy put $\varepsilon$ for Pattah furtive ; e. g.

Note 1. Sometimes, but not uniformly, the Guttural operates on the vowel which succeeds it; e. g. בַּר (for the $\mathbf{A}$-sound is otherwise admissible, that it is admitted here [in the room
 But if a particular vowel is essential to the form, the Guttural does not


Note. 2. Seghol is not unfrequently employed before Gutturals instead
 In forms without a Guttural, the $(-)$ here would be a short Hhireq $(-)$.
When a syllable begins with a Guttural and ends with a Daghesh-forte
 If by any modification the Daghesh forte is dropped, then Seghol comes

3. Instead of Sheva simple $(-)$, the Gutturals usually take one of the composite Shevas $(\$ 10.2)$; and this is the principal use of composite Shevas.

4. When, in the interior of a word, a Guttural ends a closed syllable, and so should have under it the syllable-divider (silent Sheva), it often retains this appropriate simple Sheva; and


But a like syllable coming before the tone, usually (not always) adopts a composite Sheva (instead of the simple one), which is determined, as to its kind, by the preceding vowel.
 the letter that follows the Guttural, by any change of the word, comes to have a simple Sheva, then the composite Sheva under the Guttural of necessity is changed into a proper short vowel of a kindred nature; e. g.


Note 1. Simple Sheva under the Gutturals, grammarians name hard,
 tural Verbs, $\$ 61-64$.
Note 2. As to the choice of the composite Shevas, the following principles may serve as a guide: $(a) \pi, \pi, \sharp$, at the beginning of words ordinarily
 Yet when the word receives an accession, $\mathbb{K}$ may take ( $-\overline{)}$ under it; as
 Gen. 3: 11. Comp. §27. n. 5.
(b) In the middle of words, the choice is directed by the vowel which


 see in $\$ 27$. Note 2.
5. Resh ( 7 ), which the Hebrews utter in a guttural way (see p. 22) shares with the other gutturals only the qualities or powers described under No. 1 above, and partly of No. 2.
(a) Usually it cannot be doubled; and as a compensation, the preceding vowel is (normally) always lengthened, if it can be.
E. g. (not (noty
(b) When a short vowel goes before, this vowel is changed into Pattah; but not uniformly.
 -
Note. In a very few words, 7 appears with a Daghesh forte, i. e. is


Arabians double it, and the Seventy translate also some few cases in which the vowel before Resh is not lengthened; e. g. מִּ (for 2 ) Sam. 18: 16.

## § 23. <br> On the feeble sounds of the Gutturals $\mathfrak{\aleph}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi}$.

1. The Guttural $\times$ loses the feeble and scarcely audible sound which it has as a consonant, whenever it would stand at the end of a syllable without a proper vowel, i. e. when it would analogically be pointed with a silent Sheva. In such cases it seems merely to prolong the vowel which precedes.
 with all vowels before $\mathbb{x}$ at the end of a syllable; but the short ones in such a case are prolonged ; e. g. .
2. Aleph ( $\kappa$ ) retains its consonant and guttural power,
 Yet,
(a) It loses its consonant power, when, having a composite Sheva under it and a short vowel before it, these vowels coalesce or are contracted, and thus become a long vowel in the place of a proper short vowel. ※ is then quiescent.


(b) When the letter that precedes $\approx$ has a Sheva, and $\kappa$ itself a long vowel, the preceding Sheva is dropped, and the long vowel put in its place. * then becomes quiescent.



 syllable being required in the ultimate, the short vowel in the penult is lengthened, as in the first case, or shortened into Sheva, as in the second.]

If, in these contractions (as they may be called), the vowel which is to stand before N happens to be a Pattah, it may remain without prolongation;

3. When $\mathbb{N}$ is quiescent, not unfrequenty $\mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}$ or a is put in its room, as being more homogeneous in case the vowels $\bar{o}$ or $\bar{e}, \bar{i}$, are required.
 Sam. 2: 16 (Kethibh). At the end of a word, $\pi$ is not unfrequently used

4. Quiescent $\kappa$ sometimes is dropped entirely.



Note 1. In Aramaean the $\mathbb{N}$ is more evanescent than in Hebrew. In Arabic, on the contrary, as a consonant it is more permanent. But here it is often employed to designate $\dot{a}$ long; while in Hebrew, the use of it merely for this purpose is very rare ; e. g. $\boldsymbol{a}_{p_{\tau}}$ for $\rho_{T}$, Hos. 10: 14. See §8. 3.

Note 2. In Syriac, (where is no proper Sheva), $\mathfrak{N}$ at the beginning of words takes a proper vowel, mostly E; e. g. אֵی, Syr. ekhal. Hence in Hebrew, several words imitate this, and instead of a composite Sheva un-



Note 3. An Arabism it may be called, when 4, at the end of a word, and not belonging to the root, is followed by a quiescent, or rather an oti-

 see $\{32$, Note 6.
5. He $(\pi)$ is stronger and more steadfast than $\kappa$. This loses its aspiration very rarely in the middle of a word; 娄 it may preserve it at the end of a word, and is then marked by a Mappiq $(\bar{\pi}), \S 14.1$.

Sometimes, where a Mappiq would analogically belong, the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ omits it, which signifies that it is treated as quiescent ; e. g. $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ( a with a Raphe) for .-

But He ( $\boldsymbol{\square}$ ) between a prefix and the body of a word, and not belonging to the root of the word, is often and even usually omitted, while its vowel falls back upon the prefix.
 of the prefix is merged in the vowel that falls back into its place, by reason of dropping the $\pi$. In other cases, a prefix with a full vowel expels both the $\pi$ and its vowel; e. g. $\frac{\square}{\text { T }}$ for
$H e(\pi)$ consonant, when a penult letter, together with the vowel of the syllable in which it stands, is not unfrequently con-

[^31]tracted so that a new long vowel of a diphthongal nature arises, and the $\pi$ is either dropped, or becomes a mere Quiescent.
E. g. סטוּסה (his horse) is written ion or © [sometimes fully, with


Note. In the form ion, we see the $n$ quiescent, instead of $n$ vocal as in Howor But usually the $\pi$ at the end of words stands, (or rather, did stand, when no vowels were used in writing), as the representative of several vow-
 since the vowels are supplied, it is merely quiescent or otiant,* in such cases]. But it should be noted, that $\boldsymbol{i}$ is not always employed for such a purpose, when the vowels above named end a word: for, ( $\alpha$ ) Sometimes, (in the Aramaean mauner), $\mathbb{N}$ is employed in the room of such a $n$ otiant or quiescent; e. g. (where $\dot{\alpha}$ long is to be expressed at the end of a word)
 the final vowels are $\bar{\sigma}$ or $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ long, ${ }^{4}$ is put for the first, and ${ }^{\square}$ for the second,


## § 24.

Mutations of the feeble letters, $\uparrow$ and $\stackrel{\square}{ }$.
The Vav $(\eta=v)$ and Yodh $(\eta=y)$ are so weak and soft, and approach so near to the corresponding vowel-sounds $u$ and $i$, that they casily flow into these vowels. According to the relations of sound and the character of grammatical forms, various solutions and changes are connected with these characteristics; a general view of which is here given, while a particular account of them will be given in the sequel, as they may respectively occur. Specially important is this, in the formation of weak roots, in which a radical ${ }^{4}$ or ${ }^{4}$ occurs, ( $\$ 68$, seq. $\$ 84$. III-VI.)

1. The cases in which " and "give up their consonant power and flow into vowel-sounds, belong principally to the first and last syllables in a word. In the middle, they for the most part retain their consonant-power. The principal cases follow:
(a) When " or " would stand at the end of a closed syllable, would have a vowel before them, and a silent Sheva under

[^32]them, the weak letter gives way, and flows into the preceding vowel-sound, [when it is homogeneous].


 quiescence in question alvays takes place.
But if the preceding vowel be heterogeneous, then, the consonant power re-
 normally precede, then a kind of diphthongal $\dot{e}$ and $\dot{o}$ are formed. (See below, 2. b.)
(b) Not unfrequently do they quiesce, when a Sheva vocal precedes them.
E. g. Cases are frequent, like witu for When ${ }^{1}$ and ${ }^{\text {a }}$ come at the end of a word, and have a Sheva immediately
 pate of (ירֶקְ,
(c) Rarely, when a full vowel precedes and immediately follows ; [yet cases of this kind are numerous enough to establish the principle].
E. g. aip for privp qa-vòm; ; por pa-vum. In Syriac, where these feeble letters are still weaker, $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ and 9 are read as 1. In like manner, $\underset{\sim}{\infty}$ in Hebrew is there read $e$. So the Seventy seem to have pronounced; for
 of drawing back the vowel belonging to ${ }^{4}$ or ${ }^{n}$, to the preceding letter,


2. After such contraction the vowel is normally long. As to the choice of the vowel, the following principles guide it : viz.
(a) When a word, without the weak letters, would normally have a vowel homogeneous with them, the same vowel-sound continues in the case before us, and is merely to be lengthened.

## 

(b) When short $\breve{a}$ (Pattah) comes before ${ }^{4}$ or ${ }^{n}$, then arises a diphthongal ô or $\hat{e}$, (see §7, 1).


[^33](c) Where the preceding vowel is heterogeneous, but is essential to the form, it swallows up the weak letter.
 "纹.*

Note. An original $\because$ - at the end of a word, $(a)$ When the sound ä $(=\mathrm{e})$ is to be introduced, becomes $\pi_{-}$-, (for the combination ${ }^{-}$- occurs not at the
 . When any accession is made to the ending $n_{-}$, the original 9 (for which the $\pi$ is here put) often reappears ; $\S 91,9$. Note.
(b) When the A sound $(-)$ is characteristic and predominates, the $n$ goes


## § 25. <br> Immutable Vovels.

What vowels in Hebrew are firm and immutable, can, with certainty and completeness, be determined only by the nature of grammatical forms, and by a comparison with the Arabic, whose vocalism exhibits itself in a purer and more original manner than the Hebrew. This is specially applicable to the vowels essentially long, in distinction from those which are long merely in a rhythmical way, i. e. extended agreeably to the laws of tone and of the formation of syllables, and which, having arisen from short vowels, by a change of tone or by a new division of syllables, again return to their original shortness. The beginner should carefully note the following principles:

1. The essentially long, and therefore immutable vowels of the second and third classes, $\bar{i}, \bar{u}, \hat{e}, \hat{o}$, are normally designated by their corresponding vowel-letter, in the unpointed text. In the ordinary text, both are combined, viz. the vowel-letters and the vowel-points, for their designation.
E. g. The vowel letter of $\hat{i}, \dot{e}$, is $\eta$; that of $\dot{u}, \dot{o}$, is $\varsigma$. Both are combined thus: $\square_{\text {- }}$ vowels are written defectively, i. e. without the vowel-letters ( $\S 8,4$ ), this is an exception to the general rule; e. g. Mup other hand, when pure and mutable vowels take a vowel-letter, (as erper is sometimes written לitupl), then the vowel-letter is a mere fulcrum of the vowel and is otiant, or merely orthographic.

[^34]2. Immutable Qamets $(\bar{\tau})$ has no regular representative among the consonants. In Arabic, the Aleph is constantly employed to designate it; but this is rare in Hebrew, $(\$ 9,1 . \S 23$, 4. note 1). One must therefore betake himself to a knowledge of forms, in order to determine. See, for example, $\$ 83$. Nos. 6. 13. 28.

The very numerous cases in which the connection of $\approx$ with a preced-

 the $\mathfrak{x}$ which follows long vowels in the first and third, does not make those vowels immutable.]
3. Fixed and immutable are also the short vowels, in a closed syllable ending with a Daghesh forte; as in בisis. Of the same character are the vowels, when they stand in a closed syllable followed by another of the same character.

4. Immutable too are those vowels which stand before a Daghesh forte implied, but not expressed, (forma dagessanda).
Of course the Daghesh is omitted in the Gutturals ( $(22,1)$, and such immutable vowels occur, therefore, before them; thus - בּרֶּ
§ 26.
Of Syllables, and of their influence on the length and shortness of vowels.
To obtain an adequate view of the laws, in accordance with which the long and short vowels are chosen, or exchanged with each other, it is necessary to learn the theory of syllabication on which that choice or those changes rest. We must regard, for this purpose, in part the commencing sound (No. 1 below); and partly the final sound (Nos. 2-7 below), which last is the more important.

1. In respect to the initial of a syllable, it should be noted that every syllable must begin with a consonant; for none in the language begin with a vowel.
Note. The only exception to the last remark is $\ddagger$ (and $)$, read as $u$ in such cases as [although we cannot sound it]
2. As to the ending of a syllable, it may terminate: (a)

With a proper vowel, and it is then called an open or simple
 below.)
(b) With a vocal Sheva, either simple or composite.
 or introductory syllables. (See No. 4 below.)
(c) With a consonant; and it is then called a closed or composite syllable.
 these must be ranked syllables en:ling with a Daghesh forte, which represents a consonant, as
(d) With two consonants; as in mepere. The vowels belonging to each, next claim our attention. (Nos. 3-7.)
3. Open or simple syllables normally have long vowels.*


 Tseri, as ゴ 3 ². $\dagger$ †

Exceptions to the general rule. Short vowels occur in open syllables, in the following cases:
(a) In dissyllabic words, which, by the aid of a mere helping vowel, have been formed out of monosyllabic ones ( $\$ 28,4$ ) ; e. g. . from last mere helping vowel, in these cases, is sounded so short, that the departure from the monosyllabic form is hardly appreciable, and at least the theory of it remains. Yet sometimes the first vowel, in these cases, is ac-


[^35](b) In certain forms of the suffixes, [with the tone]; e. g.

(c) Before $n$ local (so-called), which does not take the tone; [e. g. (to Babylon); but a short pure syllable is not frequent, in such a connection].

Thus far all cases of short vowels, in an open syllable, appear in this condition only when they have the proper tone to aid them. But other cases occur, of the like nature, when they are aided only by the half-tone accent, i. e. Methegh; viz.


(e) In certain Segholate forms, when they receive increase at the end; e. g.
 to this category, for it precedes a Daghesh implicitum. (See No. 6 below.)
4. There are some open syllables still shorter, viz., those which end in a half-vowel or vocal Sheva, $(\$ 10,1.2)$. These are so short, that they act the part of proclitics to the following longer syllable.
 grammarians deny that these very short syllables are real syllables; and they reckon them to the syllable that follows. It must be granted that this very rapid vowel hardly seems capable of supporting a full syllable; and clear it is, that such a syllahle does not correspond well with the open syllable that has a full vowel, (No. 3 above). But after all, this so called halfvowel is nothing more than an abridgment of an original full vowel ; just as the matter is conditioned in the Arabic, which has no Sheva. Even the Jewish grammarians, who were the authors of the vowels and accents, have themselves, in their dispositition of the Methegh, counted upon Sheva as making a syllable, (see $\S 16,2$ ). For the sake of distinction, one may name the very short syllables in question, half syllables, [or proclitic syllables*].
5. Closed syllables, ending with a consonant, if they have not the tone, must have a short vowel, whether at the beginning or end of a word.
 tions are only casual and accidental, e. g. when a word loses its tone by


When the tone is on a closed syllable, the vowel may be

[^36]either long or short. But of the short vowels only ( - ) and ( $(-)$ are able to sustain the tone.
E. g. Long vowels:
 monosyllabic words, E y and Ex, short Hhireq may support a tone; but it is usually removed by a Maqqeph, which makes the syllable toneless.
6. A peculiar kind of closed syllable is made by a Daghesh forte, which ends one syllable, and begins another, with the same letter repeated.
E. g. חֵֵּr inm-mi, these Daghesh'd syllables must have a short vowel; but tone syllables may have either a short or a long vowel; e. g. ghesh'd syllables cannot occur at the end of a word; see $\$ 20,3$.
7. Composite closed syllables sometimes end with two consonants, and can occur only at the end of a word. Naturally they take short vowels; but occasionally they have long ones.
 $\S 10,3$; which suggests some doubt here). Usually such syllables are avoided, by introducing a helping vowel.

Note. In making out syllables, Sheva silent, after a short vowel, belongs to the preceding syllable; but Sheva vocal, whether simple or composite, belongs to the next following syllable, whether the vowel that precedes is
 qo-tcla,


$$
\text { § } 27 .
$$

Changes of the Vowels, specially in respect to quantity.
In respect to the changes which the vowels suffer by reason of flexion, the following maxims should be noted:
(a) The changes are almost entirely limited to the last and penult syllables of words. Seldom do they extend to the antepenult.

(b) The changes are mostly confined within their respective classes of vowels. Out of $\bar{a}$ comes short $\breve{a}$ and $\ddot{a}$ [like our $a$ in may]; $\bar{e}$ may make $\bar{\imath}$ and $\breve{e}$; $\bar{o}$ may go into $\check{o}$ and $\breve{u}$; and so vice versa. But an a cannot become a $u$.

Exception. Pattah may go into short Hhireq and Seghol ; (see Note 2,

3, below). Seghol abbreviated may arise out of either class of vowels; (see Note 4 below).

The vowels which are here to be considered, in respect to changes, are the short vowels, and only those of the long ones whose length is affected by tone and rhythm: viz.
I. Vowels long by extending the tone.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mp \bar{a}=a \text { in all. } \\
& \mp \bar{e}=a i \text { in gain. } \\
& \times \bar{o}=o \text { in bold } .
\end{aligned}
$$

II. The corresponding shoort Vowels.
$=\breve{a}=a$ in hat.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{\because \ddot{a}=a i \text { in pain. } \\
& \{\div \bar{\imath}=i \text { in hit. } \\
& \{\sigma \check{o} \text { (Qam. Hhat. })=o \text { in got. } \\
& \left\{\frac{\square}{\because}=u\right. \text { in full. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Very short Vowels.

$$
\mp, \mp, \bar{\because}, \bar{\tau},(\text { Shevas, § 10) }
$$

With these should be compared what is said in $\S 9$, on the character and powers of the several vowels; also what is said in $\S 25$, respecting the immutable vowels.

Agreeably to the principles developed in $\S 26$, the following changes occur: viz.

1. (a) In the place of a vowel lengthened by tone comes a corresponding short vowel, whenever the first stands in a closed syllable from which the accent is removed, $(\$ 26,5)$.
E. g.


(b) When an open syllable has a long vowel, and by flexion it is changed into a closed one, then the vowel is shortened.
 short Hhireq, and Hholem into Qamets Hhatuph (ŏ).
(c) When a closed syllable, with Tseri or Hholem pure, comes, by accession to the word, to be followed by a Daghesh forte, these long vowels go into short Hhireq and Qibbuts.
 pure and clear, and are regarded as shorter than short $\check{e}$ and $\check{o}$.
2. The short vowels are prolonged in the following cases: viz.
(a) When a closed syllable, by a suffix accession beginning with a vowel, loses its closing consonant in order that this consonant may be joined with the accession, the short vowel becomes long.

(b) When a short vowel would normally stand before a Daghesh forte, and this by any change falls away, or when Daghesh is suppressed before Gutturals, the short vowel becomes long.

For the first case, see $\S 20,3 . \alpha$. For the second, see $\S 22,1$.
(c) A short vowel is lengthened by coming before a Quiescent ( $\kappa, \pi, \uparrow, \downarrow$ ); e. g.
(d) When a pause-accent falls upon it; specially at the close of a verse, ( $\$ 29,4$.)
3. When a word receives increase at the end, and the tone is thrown forward, the pure vowels (long and short), according as the nature of the case demands, may go over into Sheva vocal; and in some cases, they fall away so that only a silent Sheva supplies their place.
E. g.

 Moŋn); or which of the two vowels in dissyllabic words is changed or falls away; depends on the condition of the word and the laws of its declension.

General principle. In dissyllabic nouns with pure vowels, when accession is made, the first vovel normally falls away. In verbs of like form, the second is dropped.
 กทุア.

Thus, specially in the flexion of dissyllabic nouns, (a) Qamets and Tseri pure of the first syllable, go into Sheva vocal;

 noted, that the vowel which falls away, is the so-called fore-tone vowel of the ground-form ; see $\S 9,1 . \S 26,3$.
(b) The short or merely tone-long vowels, $a, e, o$, of the last syllable, specially in the verbal forms, go over into Sheva.
 words which have merely a factitious Seghol, (which helps the pronunciation of two consonants at the end of a word), drop this vowel entirely, and substitute in its place only the silent Sheva; e. g. קֶק, with suffix N. B. If the tone remains in the same place after accession as before, then
the original vowel is retained, notwithstanding the word is lengthened; e. g.

(c) An extension of the principles above detailed to words where accession carries the accent forward two syllables, instead of one, shows that in such cases they are shortened, the first to $i$ short, and the other drops the vowel entirely and takes silent Sheva.
 to the shortening of $\breve{a}$ into the still shorter $\breve{\imath}$, in a few cases, see below, Note 3.

Other changes of vowels, somewhat more anomalous, which arise from the relation of length and shortness

Note 1. The diphthongal $\hat{o}$ (i) derived from $\alpha u$, and also the $\hat{o}$ which comes out of an original $\hat{\alpha}$ long $(\$ 9,10.2)$ is longer than $u$; and the longer vowel, in case the tone is thrown forward, is sometimes changed into the

 sometimes so short that it is even employed in Daghesh'd syllables; e. g.
 holds good between $\uparrow$ - and $\uparrow$-.

On the other hand (when long) sometimes shortens itself into ŏ short ; first it appears in a tone-syllable as $\bar{o}$ long, and then (the tone being remo-

 Par. M. Kal.) In the same way, from "- comes Tseri with tone-length; and when the tone is removed, Seghol follows; e. g.
 tone. (See Par. M. Hiph.)

Note 2. From short $\breve{a}$ (Pattah), in a closed syllable, arises sometimes, by a further shortening, or rather by relaxing and clipping the sound, a Seghol $(-)=$ short $e$ :
(a) Sometimes by hastening toward the tone syllable which follows; e. g.
 place, when the syllable in which it stands would normally have been a Daghesh'd one (forma Dagessanda), but the Daghesh is omitted; as אֲ Ex. 32: 3, for
(b) Necessarily and constantly is this done, when the Daghesh forte is omitted by reason of a Guttural, and the Guttural has a Qamets under it;

 follows the short vowel.-But in respect to $\pi$ and $y$, when they follow,
the shortening into Seghol takes place only when the tone is thrown forward so much, that some hastening toward it is required in the utterance;
 า $=\underset{\sim T}{\sim}$ (where the accent is on the proximate syllable).-Before $\mathbb{N}$ and $\ddagger$, where syllables much shortened are not in place, ( $\$ 22,1$ ), Qamets remains almost
 occur.
(c) In syllables which end with two consonants; e. g. פַ, (Arab. külb), by the exchange in question comes to be
 sive Hiph. form) would go, in like way, into ? ? 2 , and thence comes the


Note 3. In a closed and sharp syllable, which loses the tone, the $\breve{a}$ (Pat-
 4กาได

Note 4. Besides the Seghol, which arises in cases like those in Note 2, there is also one which arises: $(a)$ Out of Qamets $\left(_{\tau}\right)$ in a final syllable, (comp. Roma, French Rome, also the Arabic דמליפח, Hha-li-phe), e. g. קֶה and m .
(b) In a few cases Seghol arises even from an original $u$; e. g. עחֵm from
 nal

Note 5. Among the half vowels (composite Shevas), (.: ) is considered as



## § 28. <br> Rise of new Vowels and Syllables.

1. If a word begins with a half-vowel (Sheva) syllable $(\$ 26,4)$, and another syllable of the same nature is prefixed, this last half syllable takes a regular short vowel (usually short Hhireq), instead of its original half-vowel (Sheva). Gutturals usually demand that this short assumed vowel should be Pattah.
E. g. 3 , prefix the prep. $\underset{3}{ }$ and we have 3 , which must be written



[^37]forms are managed in such a way as to make the second Sheva a silent，instead of a vocal one，（for בִּנְ
 and reading．］

The like to this sometimes takes place in the interior of a word；e．g．


The usual vowel here in Syriac is $\breve{a}(\breve{e})$ ；in Chaldee it is as in Hebrew； the Arabic every where employs a short vowel instead of a Sheva．

2．When the second Sheva，in such cases，is a composite one，then the vowel adopted by the preceding letter must be such as to correspond with it，so that we have $-\overline{-1},-\overline{-1},-\bar{\pi}$ ．

E．g． this new short vowel of course has a Methegh to support it．

3．Sometimes a composite Sheva occurs first in order，and stands after an open syllable with a short vowel．In such cases， the composite Sheva goes over，of course，into the short vowel which corresponds with it．

4．At the end of a word，cases occur where a syllable ends with two consonants $(\$ 10,3 . \S 26,7 \%$ ．But this is only when the last of these consonants is one of a harder sound（as $\tau, P)$ ，


E．g． these are somewhat unusual forms，and the harshness of them is commonly avoided by a helping［off－sliding］vowel between the last two consonants． This helping vowel is usually Seghol（ - ）；but under Gutturals it is Pattah $\dagger$ $(-)$ ，and under Yodh consonant，it is short Hhireq（－）．E．g．．隹 for
N．B．These short helping vowels never support the tone；and they fall en－ tirely away，whenever any accession is made to the close of the word．

Remark．These helping vowels have often been called furtive ；but er－

[^38]roneously. The Pattah under a Guttural, at the end of a word, which merely slides off the sound, is more properly named furtive ; (see $\S 22,2, b$.)
5. Full vowels may arise out of half-vowels (Shevas), by a pause-accent falling upon them; see $\$ 29,4$.

## § 29.

Of the Tone or Accent ; changes of it and of the Pause.

1. The leading tone of a word, as marked by the accents ( $\$ 15,2$ ), rests, (a) In most words, upon the last syllable; (b) Less frequently upon the penult syllable.
E. g. (a) ) goes forward to an adscititious syllable, in order to rest on the ultimate.


A kind of secondary tone or counter-stress of the voice in respect to the leading tone, is marked by Methegh, (§ 16, 2). Words before Maqqeph lose the leading tone ( $\$ 16,1$ ); [al-

It is unnecessary to recount the penacuted words here. To mark them to the eye of the reader, the sign $\left(_{-}^{\prime}\right)$ is employed throughout this work; only now and then the accent on the ultimate is so marked, for special purposes.
In Arabic, the tone rests mainly on the penult; sometimes on the antepenult. The Syrians also, for the most part, accent the penult. The German and Polish Jews, in spite of the accents, read Hebrew with the tone on the penult.
2. The original tone of a word is frequently shifted, by reason of changes which the word itself undergoes, or in consequence of its connection with other words. If the word receive increase at the end, the accent must be shifted one or two places, according to the length of the increase.
 For the vowel changes incident to such cases, see $\S 27,1,3$.
3. On the other hand, the tone is often shifted from the last syllable to the penult.
(a) In certain cases where a syllable is prefixed.
 duces the same effect; 50im, 50in̄- אֵ, Prov. 30: 6.
(b) When a monosyllabic or penacuted word follows a normally accented syllable, the accent is thrown back in order to avoid bringing two accented syllables together.
 Gen. 1: 5. 3: 19. 4: 17. Job 22: 28. Ps. 21: 2.
(c) On account of the Pauses; see No. 4.

To avoid the concurrence of two tone-syllables, ( $b$ above), Maqqeph is sometimes employed, which throws off the tone of the first word. E. g.
 cent is normally retracted. (See $\$ 47$, note 1 . § 50 , note 3 . § 51 , note 2.)
4. The Pause-accent not only changes oftentimes the normal tone of words, but also occasions a variety of vowel-changes.

By this name is designated the strong intonation at the close of a sentence, or of a distinctive portion of one, on which the preceding portion seems to lean, and which receives the greatest distinctive accents ; e. g.

(a) If the tone syllable has a short vowel, it becomes long.

(b) When the last syllable normally has the tone, but is preceded by a vocal Sheva (half-syllable), this Sheva usually becomes a long vowel, and the pause accent rests upon it; which makes the intonation more pleasant to the ear.
 in these cases for the Sheva, is that which, in the ground-form, stood in the place of the Sheva; excepting that if this was short, it here becomes pro-
 ples, the ground-form has a long vowel, viz. be upon the half-syllable in question, then the corresponding long vowel is


(c) This tendency to throw the pause-accent on the perult is shown in a number of words, [unlike in their structure to the preceding], which regularly draw it thither when opportunity occurs.
 the same thing is done; e. g. 微 (for 3, seq., from

The principle in (a) above relates mainly to Pattah and Seghol. The last, however, is of itself strong enough to remain unchanged, in case the


In some other cases, instead of Seghol as in 7h. 4 , Pattah is put in the final syllable, when it comes into Pause, as



## SECOND LEADING DIVISION．

## PRINCIPLES OF F0RMS．

OR

## CONCERNING THE PARTS OF SPEECH．


#### Abstract

§ 30. Of Stem and Root Words，（biliteral，triliteral，quadriliteral）．


1．The Stem－words of the Hebrew and other Semitic lan－ guages have this peculiarity，viz．，that by far the greater part of them consist of three consonants，to which the meaning is essen－ tially attached；whilst the varying vowels seem only to desig－ nate the various modifications of the original idea；e．g． $\boldsymbol{E x w ָ}$ ，
 stem－word may be either a verb，or a noun；and usually the language exhibits both at the same time．Still，it is useful and of much practical advantage to our first instruction in Hebrew， that one should regard the thirl pers．sing．of the Perfect，（one of the simplest of the verbal forms），as a stem－vord，and all the remaining formations of the verb，and also of the noun，and of the particles derived from it，as derived from the Perfect．
 etc．The language，in its present state，does not always afford both a nom－
 ＝nin nine，only as nouns．The living language doubtless had a correspond－ ing verb and nom，in nearly all cases，as stem－words；but many of these are now lost．

Note 1．The Jewish grammarians called the stem－word a root（＊゙グi）； and so，in Latin，radix was usually employed to designate the same thing． So the three stem－letters were called literae radicales，in distinction fiom the
formative letters, which they called literae serviles. We employ, in this work, the word root in a somewhat different sense; see Note 2.

Note 2. Many etymologists name the three stem-consonants, considered independently of the vowels and of enunciation, the root. From this sprung verbal and nominal stems ; as in the natural domain of plants, (from which the figurative language in question was borrowed), the stems spring out of unseen roots. So, according to them, מקל is root ; the verbal stem of which is an unpronounceable root is an abstraction which leads us too far away from the actual condition of the language; and when we come to treat of this language as a matter of fact, it is much preferable to consider the concrete verb as a stem-word.

Note 3. The three stem-consonants predominantly form two syllables in Hebrew. We should also reckon with these, those verbs which have a weak middle letter ( $\uparrow,{ }^{\wedge}$ ), and which become monosyllabic only by con-

2. The triliteral stem is so predominant in all the Semitic languages, that one must regard it as a leading characteristic of this tribe of languages. Even those dissyllabic nouns which seem to be original, because they designate a most common and simple idea, still arrange themselves as if they were derivates from triliterals. E. g. (mother), with suff. "אap, as if


On the other hand, triliteral stems may often be reduced to biliteral elements, which, with a vowel between, constitute a kind of root-syllable; and from this spring various triliteral stemwords, with different shades of meaning. Commonly such roots are primary biliteral roots. They are easily discovered, when the stem has a weak consonant, or when the second and third letter of the root are the same.
 ing, viz. to thrust, beat down; and the stronger letters $\begin{gathered}\text { (dakkh) make a }\end{gathered}$ monosyllabic root. Yet, in some cases, the third consonant may be a strong letter. To such a monosyllabic root a whole series of trissyllabic words may attach themselves, which have two radicals that remain the same throughout, and also have the same fundamental meaning. Here follow examples:

From the root-syllable Yp , (which imitates the sound of hewing), come
 then the figurative meaning, decide, determine; and from this, ${ }^{5}$ judge. So the syllables $\mathbb{k P}$, op, are related to the preceding, and from the
 off，destroy．Next the $\because, 0$ ，of the biliteral root is spoken as a Lingual，and
 shorten，－Top to tear off，pluck off，
 cut off，shear off，כָּ（Syr．to offer，kill offerings）．Still further weakened is the ront in 4 and 7 ；and herefrom is to mow down，shear off，nre to hew （cut oft）stones，두T，

 $\uparrow \mathfrak{T}$ row，lightning，and $\overbrace{\text { Tָ }}$ to see，（cernere，to separate），etc．

The syllable ent expresses the sound of humming，nurmuring，the tone which is uttered with closed mouth，（Greek $\mu \mu^{\prime}(\omega)$ ；thence
 to be astounded．

The root syllable エ゙，consisting of two tremulous letters，means，in the



Compare also the root syllable $2 \boldsymbol{\wedge}$ ，with the idea of elevation，arching，（gib－ bus）；and see striking articles in the Lex．on コニッּ ；on $\urcorner$ ，breaking in picces； 23， $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{3}$ ，to lick，swallow up．

The more mature consideration of this subject affords the fol－ lowing results ：
（a）These roots，aside from actual use in word－stems，are mere abstrac－ tions，and never employed by usage；they merely represent the hidden germs brought to light in the word－stems of language．Yet these latter，at times，are so abbreviated，that they present us with the mere elements of the root；e．g．an he is perfect， $\mathrm{hp}_{\mathrm{p}}$ light．
（b）Most of the monosyllabic roots are those which imilate sounds；and in this respect they accord sometimes with the Indo－Germanic stem－words；
 $\lambda \alpha \nu \vartheta \dot{u} \nu \omega$ ．
（c）The stems with harsher and stronger consonants，are，according to the general tenor of language $(\xi 6,3)$ ，to be regarded as the older ones； those with more feeble letters as the later ones；which are therefore more frequently used with a metaphorical meaning．E．g．חיָּ ，risi to be smooth， deprived of hair，bald．Sometimes，however，the harder or more feeble tone， in the imitation of sounde，is essential ：e．g． 3 and of the rolling of the waves）；more in relation to a rough scratch－ ing sound，$=\sigma \alpha i \rho \omega$ ，$\sigma i \rho \omega$ ，verro $; \underset{\sim}{3} \underset{\tau}{ }$ ，to hew stones or wood，demands a stronger sound than Tres，to cut down grass，to mow．
(d) It should be noted, moreover, that consonants which are alike in strength or weakness more usually come together in root-syllables; e. g.
 -x). Very seldom are the two first radicals the same, (like דָּרָ) ; or even very much alike, (as in very often the same, (§ 66 ).*
(e) The softening down, (mentioned under (c) above), is sometimes so much, that the letters $l, n, r$, as middle stem-letters, go even into vowels; e. g. etc. Comp., [for like omissions of weak letters], salvare and sauver; calidus and Ital. caldo, Neapolitan caudo, French chaud ; falsus, falso, Calabrian fauzu, French faux. So in the English words walk, talk, stalk, [where $l$ loses its sound]. See $\$ 19,5$.
$(f)$ But after all, the three stem consonants must oftentimes be regarded as belonging to the root, since all are required, in order to make out fully the sound to be imitated; ; ָָּ , Pפָּ Пרִּ

Remark. A more complete observance of this animated movement in the original elements of speech, is to be found in Gesenius' Manual Lexicon. It is important for beginners, that they should not regard the roots, and the meaning of them, as the work of a capricious and arbitrary law of a people remote from the rest of the ancient world, but as the fruit of a lively imitation of nature. He should consider these matters as standing in a natural connection, with the well known laws of speech that pertain to other nations.
2. To a secondary formation of words belong the stemwords which have four, or even five, consonants. Of these the Hebrew has much fewer than its kindred languages, (specially the Ethiopic). This prolongation of the stem is brought about in a twofold way: (a) By the addition of a fourth letter. (b) By compounding and amalgamating two triliteral words, by which a quinqueliteral word is produced.

Note 1. Those prolongations of words, which arise from the repetition of one or two of the letters of any particular stem-word, are not reckoned to quadriliteral stems, but to conjugation-forms (§54). E. g. ${ }^{\text {. }}$. בַּ,


[^39]Note 2 to letter ( $a$ ). Between the first and second radical letter, $l$ and $r$
 in Syriac such a usage is frequent. This method of formation is analogous
 In Latin is the like prolongation ; e. g. findo, scindo ; tundo, jungo ; out of fid- comes scid- ( $\left.\sigma x \varepsilon \delta \delta^{\alpha} \omega\right)$; out of $t u d$, jug.

As to the end of words, $l$ and $n$ are the letters usually appended in order to prolong them; e. g. 3nnem from (The ending el was probably a diminutive one, as in many languages).

Note 3 to letter (b). The compounding is usually so managed, that out of two stems none of the letters are repeated; e. g. (frog) from צִפְּרֶ

 as 5 from


It should be added, that out of Quadriliterals, by a shortening process, Triliterals may be formed. Out of


4. To an earlier stage of formation belong the pronounstems ( $\$ 32$, seq.), and also several of the particles, viz. interjections ( $\$ 103,1$ ). These are as it were a rougher impression of speech, which does not conform to the triliteral law, and follows a freer method of formation.* Most of the particles, however, attach themselves to nouns, as to the modes of formation, or are derived from nouns, although, on account of their enclitic nature they are often greatly abridged, so that their origin becomes a matter of doubt. See $\S 97$ seq.

## § 31. <br> Of grammatical Structure.

1. For the formation of words from stem-forms, and for their flexion, there exists two different ways; viz. internal change by alteration or exchange of vowels, and external by adding formative syllables.

A third way, viz. by periphrasis, which makes use of several

[^40]words to convey an idea of relation instead of changing the forms, (e. g. the comparative degree in Hebrew, and several relations of cases), belongs more appropriately to the Syntax; where the reader will find it.

The external mode of forming words by attaching formative syllables to them, (as is the case in the Egyptian), seems to have been the more ancient. Yet some of the stem-languages, e. g. the Semitic, along with this, have employed the internal method at a very early period. In the youthful days of the Hebrew, the formative process was very active; which, however, at a later period declined, and one was necessitated to resort to syntactical periphrasis. The same progress is exhibited by the Greek, (including the new Greek), and also the Latin, taken in its Roman branches. Formation of words by agglutination is predominant both in old and new Egyptian; that by internal declension, in Sanscrit and Greek. The Chinese is nearly without any grammatical structure, and everything is accomplished in a syntactical way.
2. In Hebrew both methods of formation coëxist. The formation by change of vowels is quite manifold; e. g. . לup,
 of formation by annexation, as in almost all languages, is common; specially so in the formation of the persons of the verb, where the meaning of them is usually very plain, (see $\$ 44$. §47). The gender also is marked by changes, both in the verb and in the noun. Declension to make out cases, is hardly known in Hebrew.

## CHAPTER I.

> OF THE PRONOUN.

## § 32. Of Pronouns personal and separate.

1. The Personal pronoun, (like pronouns in general), belongs to the most original* and simple parts of speech $(\S 30)$;

[^41]and is here treated of，because，in the flexion of the verb，it lies at the ground（ $\$ 44 . \S 47$ ）．

2．The monosyllabic leading forms，as marking the Nomi－ native，are the following：


The forms which stand in parentheses are unusual．The arrangement of the whole，with the corresponding abridged forms（pronominal Suffixes）， see at the end of the Grammar，in Paradigm A．

## NOTES．

## I．First Person．

Note 1．The form The first is found in the Phenician；but in no other of the kindred dialects．＊ From the second are derived the suffixes（\＄33）．In the Talmud，אָּ scarcely appears；אָּ is predominant．

Note 2．The formation of the plural in this，and in the following per－ sons，has an analogy with the plural－formation of the verb and the noun； but still，like pronouns in other languages，it has more freedom and dis－ crepancy of manner．At all events，
 which the suffixes proceed，occurs in the Kethibh only in Jer．42：6．The curtailed form one occurs only six times；e．g．as in Gen．42：11．Numb． 32：32．（In the Talmud，the form has expelled altogether the longer forms；way is also rare in the same work．

Note 3．Only in the first person（sing．and plur．）is the pronoun of the common gender；because the first person，present and speaking，needed for himself no designation of gender，such as was convenient to make in re－ spect to the second who is addressed，and the third who is absent．（In

[^42]Greek, Latin, German, English, the second person, as well as the first, has no distinction of gender).

## II. Second Person.

Note 4. The forms of the second person, tracted out of Arab. anta, fem. anti, plur. antum, fem. antunna. The syllable nत̣ expresses the essence of the word, see $\S 44,1$. The an prefixed is a demonstrative, and gives to the form more firmness and independence.

The $n$ final of the sing. masc. is sometimes (in five cases) omitted, and it
 margin. As the vowels affixed in these cases to the Kethibh belong to the Qeri, the text may have actually read $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{N}}$, as abbreviated, [or rather, as the old pronoun generis communis.]

The fem. form originally sounded (for ${ }^{n}$ - - is a sign of the fem., probably from $\underset{\text { In }}{ }$ ), so that Syriac, Arabic, and Ethiopic. This form appears in only a few cases, (e. g. Judg. 17: 2. 1 K. 14: 2); and it appears, also, in the corresponding personal
 ( is written but not spoken), and therefore it came to fall away. In all these cases, the Jewish critics have supplied $\underset{\sim}{\text { ñ }}$ in the Keri for thibh, (§ 17). The same final ${ }^{4}$ - shows itself in some of the unusual forms of the suffixes; e. g. ${ }^{4}$-., , , (\$ 57 ).
Note 5. note $4, b$ ), from ground of some of the verbal-flexions, § 58); and wand are formed

 Mspy occurs only four times, viz. Gen. 31: 6. Ezek. 13: 11, 20. 34: 17. Respecting the $\pi-$ at the end, see Note 7 below.

## III. Third Person.

Note 6. The $\mathbb{N}$ in indicates an original after vowel-sound in these words, something like hua, hia; (like the $e$ in the German die, old German, thiu, thia); and a trace of this is still preserved in the Arabic, huva, hiya; in the vulgar dialect, hua, hia.

The masc. המה is common gender in the Pentateuch, and stands for she as well as he. The Punctators, however, have, in all cases where it stands for she, given to the form the vowel of the fem. היא, i. e. they have written it תִ, indicating that it is to be read as rather, after the ancient manner, read it hu.

Note 7. The plural forms m, in, are derived from wint knt just as erw comes from nrix. In Arabic, where these pronouns sound hum, hunna, the obscure vowel remains. The $\pi_{-}$in both forms has a demonstrative power, (comp. §93, 1). In the Chaldee, $\dagger$, the Ethiopic, hömu ; there is an appended $\dot{0}, \bar{u}$; which also appears in the

 demonstrative, as well as personal, pronouns, ( $\$ 120,1$ ).

## § 33.

## Suffix Pronouns.

1. By the leading independent forms of the pronoun, as given in the preceding section, only the Nom. case, is designated.* T'he Acc. and Gen., however, are made by curtailed forms of the same, which are appended to the close of verbs, nouns, and particles, (pronoun-suffixes, or simply suffixes).
 io: O, his horse. Similar to this are several forms in Greek, Latin, and Ger-
 du hast's for du hast es. But in Hebrew this is carried through the pronouns; as it is in Egyptian, Hungarian, and some other languages.
2. In respect to the cases which these suffixes represent, let it be noted:
(a) When appended to verbs, they mark the Accusative, (with

(b) When appended to nouns, they mark the Genitive, and take the place of possessive pronouns; e. g. "אָ my father, like $\pi \alpha \tau \eta ́ \varrho \mu о v=\pi \alpha \tau \grave{\varrho} \varrho$ ह́ $\mu \circ$ о́я.
(c) Appended to particles, they mark the Gen. or the Acc., according to the nature of the particle. If this has a nominal meaning, then the Gen.; if a verbal one, then the Accusative.
E. g. nụ with me, (lit. nearness of me), like the Latin mea causa; on the other hand, דְִ behold me! There are a few adverbs, which require to be represented, in other languages, with the Nom. after them; see $\$ 98,5$.
(d) The Dative and Ablative are made by prefixing appropriate prepositions.
E. g. to or for, marks the Dative; in, and (\#) from, designates the Ablative. These particles are often joined with suffixes; as is to him, im in him, מֶּコ) (for

[^43]3. Some of these suffix-pronouns are derived from older forms of independent pronouns, now extinct.
E. g. 꾸 (thee) comes from such a form as אַָּּ (thou), which is altogether
 verbs, ( $\$ 44,1$ ).
4. The verbal and nominal suffix are usually of the same form, but not always.
E. g. אָּ, with suff. אָָ father of me, or my father, (the suff. ${ }^{4}$ - constituting the Gen.); but with a verb, Accusative).
N. B. For a full view of the independent pronouns and their corresponding suffixes, see Paradigm A, near the close of this volume. For the suffixes of the Verb, with explanations, see $\$ 57$ seq., and comp. Par. C. For the suffixes of $\mathcal{N}$ ouns, see $\S 89$ and comp. Parad. §91. For the Prepositions with suffixes, see § 101 .

## § 34.

## The Demonstrative Pronoun.

Sing. masc. $\begin{gathered}\text { Hive this, that.* }\end{gathered}$

Plur. comm. האֵ. (rarely these, those.
ir (mostly the relative which, and only in poetry), these, those.
 $\varsigma, \S 79$ ); and ir, तir, are merely forms abridged by dropping the $\Omega$, [and adopting final Quiescents more appropriate to the Hholem than $\kappa$ ].
אیֵּלֶה form not a grammatical plural, but a plural of usage. They are related to the Arabic article $\mathbf{3} \mathbf{N},(\$ 35$, note 1$)$. The form לא occurs only in the Pentateuch, and 1 Chron. 20: 8, and always takes the article; e. g.
 $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ as it appears in $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{s}}^{\mathrm{s} h}$, ( $\$ 32$, note 7).
, mostly a fem. relative in poetry, and like of all genders and numbers. [As a demonstrative it is equivalent to both ry and rirn. See Ps. 12: 8. Hab. 1: 11.]

Note 1. The demonstratives take the article, in accordance with the
 employed others having an epenthetic 3; e. g. 다ㄴㅜㅜㄴ, Gen. 24: 65. 37: 19.

[^44] 20. 1 Sam. 14: 1. 17: 26; fem. 2 K. 4: 25. In Arabic alladhi corresponds, as a relative pronoun.

Note 2. Some other pronominal stems occur among the particles; see § 97 seq.

## § 35. <br> The Article.

Originally the article was a demonstrative pronoun, (as in Greek), which was related to the pronoun of the third person, but of so feeble a meaning that it is rarely employed except in connection with a noun, [or its conjunct adjective, or a participial word]. It is written with •․․, i. e. 프 followed by a Daghesh forte, has a short $\bar{\pi}$, and naturally doubles the consonant which follows it, except in cases to be noted.

Gutturals cannot be doubled $(\$ 22,1)$, and therefore cannot take the Daghesh forte which follows the article. As a compensation, the short vowel of the article becomes long, (either $\mp$ or - ). Particulars follow:
(1) Before the weak Guttural $\times$, and also before $\neg(\S 22,5)$, the vowel of the article is always prolonged.

(2) Before other Gutturals the general principle is, that the stronger the Guttural, the more the Pattalh of the article is wont to remain unchanged. 'Two cases may be distinguished as follows:
(A) When the Guttural has any other vowel than ( - ) or $(-)$, then,
(a) The article-vowel remains before the stronger $\pi$ and $\pi$.

(b) Before $y$, the article-vowel is more usually prolonged.

(B) When the Guttural takes $(\neg)$, then the article is prolonged
(a) Before $\underset{\sim}{T}$ and $\underset{\sim}{ }$ if they are in the tone-syllable, it is always $\Pi$; when not in the tone, it is $\pi$.

(b) Before $\pi$, and also before $\Gamma$, the article-vowel is always $\uparrow$, without reference to the tone.


N. B. Gender and number have no influence on the form of the article.

Note 1. It is usually assumed, that the original form of the article was 3in, and that the 3 of this word always assimilates with the following letter.

But (1) $\underset{T}{ }$, N., has in itself a demonstrative power; comp. Arabic and Aramaean ${ }^{\text {הT }}$ ecce. (2) The form no where developes itself, not even in
 are comprised. (3) The Arabic article $3 \mathbb{N}$, to which appeal is made, belongs to another class of Pronoun-stems, kindred with אֵכֶּה. And although Kאַ occurs in the O. Test., yet it is only in Arabic names; e. g. אַ
 Ezek. 13: 11, 13. 38: 22.

Note 2. When the prepositions $\underset{\sim}{3}, 3$, and the comparative particle ( $\$ 100$ ), come before the article, the latter usually falls away, and the vowel of the article passes to the prefix particle $(\$ 23,5)$.
 the $r$ Is more frequently retained, as the connection is not so close; e. g.
 only in the later books; e. g. לְלָּ 2 Chron. 10: 7. (See however 1 Sam. 13: 31). The prefixed does not combine with the article ; as

## § 36.

## The Relative Pronoun.

This is the same for both genders and numbers, viz. אֲשׁ, who, which (sing. and plur.). In the later books, also throughout the Canticles and several times in the book of Judges, ${ }_{2}$. i is used for it; which drops the $\underset{\sim}{\text { of }}$ of the ground-form, and assimilates the - by a Daghesh forte.

Sometimes this is pointed ${ }^{\underline{W}}$, Judg. 5: 7. Cant. 1: 7. Once before $x$ (Judg. 6: 7) it is pointed $\stackrel{\text { שin }}{\text {; elsewhere, before Gutturals, }}$ even í is employed, Ecc. 2: 22. 3: 18.* On the notation of cases, see § $121,1$.

令 is also used as a conjunction, like quod, övl, dass, that. The same meaning attaches to 4 , which originates in one of the pronoun-stems, § 102.

[^45]
## § 37.

The Pronoun Interrogative and Indefinite.

1. The interrogative for persons is $\rightsquigarrow$, who? For things it is $\underset{\sim}{T}$, what?

The punctation of n with Qamets, is confined to pause, and to cases when it precedes an $\times$ or a $\mathfrak{n}$; e. g. $g$. Rarely does this take place before $n$; as in Josh. 4: 6, 21. On the other hand; when words are closely connected, (a) The is written -nַּ, i. e. with Maqqeph and Daghesh forte conjunc-

 that? Ex. 4: 2. (b) Before the harder Gutturals, $\pi, \pi, \mathcal{y}$, the word retains the Pattah, with a Daghesh implied (but not writ-

 Seldom is Seghol employed before words which begin with letters not Guttural; as מה מה, 1 Sam. 4:6. 1 Kings 1:7; never except when the tone of the sentence is far removed from the word. Besides these different ways of pointing, such cases oc-

2. Both and are employed as indefinite pronouns, viz. as meaning whoever, whatever.

## CHAPTER II.

## OFTHEVERB.

§ 38.

## General View.

1. The verb, in Hebrew, is by far the most completely formed; and in many respects, it is the most important part of speech, inasmuch as it contains the word-stem ( $\$ 30$ ), and its various forms afford in a good measure a rule for the formation of the other parts of speech.
2. In the meantime all verbs are not stem-words. They may be distinguished into three classes, in reference to their origin.
(a) Primitive verbs; as
(b) Verbal derivatives, which come from other verbs; as to justify, ? These are usually denominated Conjugations (§39).
(c) Denominative verbs, which come from nouns (de nomine).

 model of the two foregoing ones, and appear to be of somewhat later formation in imitation of the others.

In most cases, the noun from which the denominative verb is derived, is



A peculiar kind of secondary verbs, and at all events a later formation of the language, (thence more frequent in the later dialects), are those denominatives, in which a consonant, that was originally servile, has now become a radical. E. g. तַּ to rest, to settle down, thence nme setting down, and then, from this latter, man to descend. In the same way, we have pit, destruction, (from

## § 39.

## Changes of the ground-form, or Conjugations.

1. The third person of the Perfect is usually regarded as the stem-form; e. g. קָּה he has killed, כָּ he is heavy.* From this the other persons of the Perfect and the participle are derived. A second form however, more simple in its structure, stands by the side of the Perfect, i. e. the Infinitive, (קָּקְ ) ; from which, for the most part, the Imperative and Imperfect are derived.
2. From the ground-form, by an all-pervading analogy, are formed the clerivate verbs. The forms of these, changed by definite rules, indicate of course a variation in the meaning; (which may be intensive, frequentative, causative, passive, reflexive, and reciprocal).

 are regarded as newly derived verbs; e. g. Germ. fallen to fall, fallen to fell ; Lat. jacère to cast, jacére to lie down; yivoucu to be, yevvóco to beget. In Hebrew, however, since Reuchlin's time, such formations have been called Conjugations; and then the regularity of formation far exceeds that in other

[^46]languages. In grammar and lexicography they are treated of merely as modifications of the same stem-form. With more strict propriety they might be named species or modifications. (The Hebrew grammarians call them ם , in e. structures).
3. The changes of the ground-form rest partly on their internal development, and the strengthening of the same by a change of vowels, or a reduplication of one or more consonants ; partly in the prefixing of certain formative letters or syllables.



In Aramaean less is effected by vowel-changes, than by formative syllables. The differences made by vocalization are, in a large measure, out of use, so that, for example, all Passives are constituted by the reflexive forms with the prefix syllable תx. or - The Arabic, on the other hand, exhibits great riches in both respects; while the Hebrew holds the middle path between the two, ( $\$ 1,6$ ).
4. The number and order of these conjugations are given differently by grammarians. In the meantime all occasion for error is removed, in case that they are habitually called by their old grammatical names. The ground-form is named Kal, (i.e. $\sum_{E}$ light, because it is angmented by no formative affixes) ; the others have their name from the model-verb adigm by the oldest Jewish grammarians.* Several of them have passive forms, which are separated from the active ones by vowels which are more obscure. The most common (including Kal) are the following five conjugations; which, however, rarely all actually occur in any one verb:

Active.

1. Kal.
2. Niphal.
3. Piel.
4. Hiphil. חִקְשיל to cause to kill.
5. Hithpael, ? to kill one's self.

Passive.
(wanting.) (rare.)
Pual
Hophal,
Hothpaal. לַּีran.

[^47]Besides these are found several unusual conjugations; which, however; are more common in the kindred languages, and also, in some of the irregular verbs, they are substituted for usual normal conjugations, (\$54).

In Arabic the variety is still greater, and the consecution of each, as to its origin and its mutual relation, is more congruous, although still imperfect. The Hebrew conjugations, arranged in the Arabic fashion, would follow thus: 1. Kal. 2. Piel and Pual. 3. Poel and Poal, (§54, 1). 4. Hiphil and Hophal. 5. Hithpael and Hothpaal. 6. Hithpoel, (\$54). 7. Niphal. 8. (is wanting in Hebrew). 9. Pilel. Most appropriately we may make three classes. (1) The intensitive Piel with its derivatives and analogous forms. (2) The causative Hiphil and analogous forms Shaphel, Tiphel. (3) The reflexive and passive Niphal.

1. The Hebrew, by virtue of the derivate verbs, i. e. conjugations, possesses a kind of richness and amplitude of expression. Yet in the formation of tenses and modes, it exhibits poverty. Every verb has only тwo tenses, (Perfect and Imperfect, §47, foot-note) ; and as to modes, it has an Imperative, an Infinitive (with two forms), and a Participle. All other absolute and relative designations of time must be expressed, partly by the aid of these, (and hence their manifold meaning, $\S 123$ seq.), and partly by syntactical arrangement. Only the relations of the Jussive and of the Optative are in part expressed by means of significant modifications of the form of the Imperfect, ( $\$ 48$ ).

In German, Saxon, English, etc., the tenses are only two, in like way, made by change in the verb itself. The other tenses needed are made by the aid of helping verbs.
2. In regard to their relation to each other, the forms of each conjugation are divided into two groups, $(\$ 39,1)$. The one attaches itself to the third pers. of the Perfect; but this consists of only the participle, (and not always even this). The other attaches itself to the Infinitive, and consists of the Imperfect, the Imperative, and (in part) the Participle.


3. The flection of the two tenses exhibits something diffe-
rent from the dialects of the West, in that, for the most part, a distinction of the two genders is marked by difference in the forms of the verb; in like manner as the personal pronouns are distinguished, which stand connected with these.
§ 41.
General analogy in the formation of Verbs.
This analogy, taken in an extended sense, applies to all Hebrew verbs ; so that, properly speaking, there are no anomalous verbs in this language, like the Greek verbs, for example, in $-\mu$. The actual departures from the general and normal formations arise in several ways: viz.
(a) When one of the stem-letters is a Guttural; in which case several vowel-changes are demanded, in accordance with the principles exhibited in $\S 22$. (See Guttural Verbs, $\S 61$ 64).
(b) When a strong stem-consonant, by assimilation or contraction of two letters, falls away, (contracted ${ }^{*}$ verb) ; as in

(c) When one of the stem-letters is a feeble letter, (i. e. one of the debiles, $\delta 23, \$ 24$ ); in which case, by exchange, by falling away, or by a remission of the consonant-power, several changes are brought about; (verb quiescent, feeble verb, are some of the

Here also, it is customary, by a reference to the old paradigmal stem, to call the first radical of the verb $P e$, the second Ayin, and the third Lamedh. Hence we say: a verb $P e \operatorname{Aleph}\left(\kappa_{k}^{\prime}\right)$ is one whose frrst radical is $\kappa$; a verb Lamedh $H_{e}\left({ }^{n}\right)$ is one whose third radical is $\pi$; a verb Ayin Doubled $\left(\Sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is one whose second and third radical is the same.

## I. Of the regular Verb.

§ 42.
Preparatory Remarks.
Inasmuch as the formation of the regular verb lies at the basis of the irregular one, so it will be most fitting for beginners, and at the same time

[^48]most perspicuous, if we treat of everything which belongs to the general aualogy of verbs, under the category of the reguldr verb.

A complete view of the most usual and normal forms the reader may find at the close of this volume, in Parad. B. A copious explanation follows here, in § $43-54$. In these, everything is explained in the order in which it first occurs; of course, the flexion of the Perfect, of the Imperfect, and of the modifications of the latter in Kal, together with the forms and meaning of the Conjugations in a regular verb. To this model all other verbs are substantially conformed, although they may pass for irregular verbs.

## [A] Of the Ground-form or Kal.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Form and Meaning of Kal. }
\end{gathered}
$$

The common form of the third pers. Perfect, is the groundform of Kal, e. g. קַָׁ , specially in verbs transitive. Besides this there are two other ground-forms, one with Tseri ( - ) and the other with Hholem ( - ) in the second syllable. The last two belong predominantly to verbs intransitive, and those which designate condition and attributes; e. g. be small. Sometimes the ground-form belongs to both classes ;
 §47, note 2); but sometimes it has both forms with the same meaning, e. g. קָּרזב, both to draw near.
[The first class is named verbs middle $A$, the second verbs middle $\boldsymbol{E}$ or $O$, i. e. verbs whose middle letter is followed by A, etc.] Verbs middle $\mathbf{A}$ and E are designedly arranged together in Parad. B ; but the latter verb is selected in such a way, as to make the principle of inserting or omitting $D a$ ghesh lene conspicuous.

Note 1. The vowel of the second syllable is the principal one; and on this the appropriate forms of the transitive and intransitive meaning are suspended. The fore-tone Qamets, in the first syllable, has but little stability, and by a removal of the tone-syllable it becomes a Sheva; e. g. 唃管. In

Note 2. Denominative verbs in Kal are like to the following: viz.

§ 44.
Perfect of Kal and its flexion.

1. The variations to express person, gender, and number here, are made by attaching fragments of pronouns to the end
of the ground-form, (hence called Afformatives) ; which groundform, moreover, sometimes constitutes a participle or verbal ad-
 small.
E. g. are afraid, or fearful [are] ye, instead of $\mathbf{5} \underset{\sim N}{ } \times \underline{n}$. . This is quite plain, then, in regard th the second person. In the first person, it is almost equally so;
 or simple germ of the first person, and to this is added the demonstrative $\pi$, to give the Yodh a more stable character and make it more conspicuons; while, at the same time, this device distinguishes the verbal formative suffix $\quad$ from other suffix forms of the same stem-pronoun, viz. "and - . (Besides, after the analogy of $\underset{\sim}{n}$,
 In the third person sing. fem., the $n_{-}$, (which originally was $n_{-}$, sce note 4 below), designates the feminine form, (as in Nouns, §79, 2). In the third pers. phur., the n- ending is merely the old pronoun $7^{7-}$; [which, moreover, not unfrequently makes its appearance].

In the Indo-Germanic, the flexion as to persons is in the like way, viz. by appending personal pronouns ; as, for example, in Greek, the Doric ending - $\mu \varepsilon \varsigma$ (fiom $\ddot{u}, \mu \mu \varepsilon \varsigma$ we), and the corresponding Latin oue -mus, shows. (See Bopp, Vergleich. Gramm. §439 ff.). But the etymology in those languages is very much effaced. The like we meet with in some of the Semitic languages ; e. g. first pers. sing. in Arab. qa-tal-tŭ, Syr. qet-let, where the characteristic ( $i$ ) has entirely vanished.
2. In regard to the shortening of vowels, this takes place after the analogy of the third fem. sing. השְׁerer mo the third pers.
 are all the other forms of the first and second person.t
 on the formative su!lix. Hence a Sheva under the first stemletter, ( $\$ 27,3$ ).

[^49]Note 1．The verbs middle（ - ），in their flexion，drop the $(-)$ ，and con－ form to the usual inflection of venbs middle $(-)$ ；see Par．B．under

 letters are all strong ones，the（ - ）appears out of the third pers．sing．only in case of prause，and consequently only when some emphasis lies upou it；


Note 2．In some stems with middle Pattah normally in the derivate forms，and whose second letter is one of the debiles，when the second sylla－ ble loses the tone and is a closed one，while the first stem－letter has a She－

 fixes， guard against supposing these verbs in their ground－form to be middle（ - ）， ［as Ges．in Lex．has done］；for the short vowels in question come only in consequence of weakening the sound of the middle syllable，and the third pers．Perfect is לیֵּ note 4.

Note 3．In verhs with middle $\mathbf{O}$（Hholem），the $\mathbf{O}$ remains in all syllables
 but with tone removed as prefix throws forward the tone，（ $\$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, 3$ ）．

Note 4．Unusual forms，（common ones for the most part in the kindred languages），are the following：（a）Third sing．$f_{\epsilon} m$ ．in（ $\Omega=$ ）（as in Arab）． Aeth．Chald．Syr．）；e．g．rerw，Dent．32：36．Before a suffix to the third
 fem．is not unfrequently made lyy 5 －，（see $\$ 73, \mathrm{n} .1 . \S 74, \mathrm{n} .1$ ）．（b）The second pers．sing．masc．sometimes puts $\pi_{\text {The }}$－for ，（which is only an ortho－
 times．（c）The second fcm．has sometimes an ${ }^{-}$at the end ；as $\operatorname{man}_{\substack{2 \\ \tau}}$ ，Jer．31： 21．Specially may this be found in Jeremiah and Ezekiel．This form is
 belong to the marginal Qeri $\operatorname{man}$（without ${ }^{4}$ ）．Comp，the pronoun mex $(\$ 32, n .4)$ ．Hence the form of second fem．before suffixes，viz．
 Ps．140：13．Job 49：2． 1 Kings 8：48；but only in the Kethibh．The Qeri designates the full form．（e）The second plur．fem．for ；－sometimes takes

 16；sometimes a paragogic $\mathfrak{k}$ ，as ぶン？ ending $\ddagger$ is more frequent，（ $\$ 47, \mathrm{n} .4$ ）．

Note 5．When the formatives $\underset{\text { ．}}{ }, 7$ ， 7 ，are employed，the tone remains upon the second sylliable of the verb；but the other endings draw it down
upon themselves. Yet the place of the tone may be changed by a pauseaccent, $\$ 29,4$; and, (1) Where in ordinary declension a vowel has fallen away, and a Sheva come in its place, there the pause-accent briugs back
 A Vav consecutive prefixed to the Perfect, throws the accent forward ; (see § $48 \mathrm{~b}, 3$ ).

## § 45. <br> Infinitive.

1. The second ground-form of every conjugation is the $I_{n}$ finitive; and of this the shorlest form, (Inf. construct), as in Kal STR. This is the predominant form, not merely when a Genitive case follows, but also necessary when a preposition is prefixed, (e.g. $3 \times \sim$ b, 3 ). The longer form (Inf. absolute), in Kal biap, is employed when action is designated by itself without immediate connection; but most frequently when the Inf. is added to a finite verb, in order 10 make an energetic expression; (see § 128). The first form is the original one, and the last appears to be of later origin, and to be formed from it. The first has more the character of a verbal noun; the second expresses the verbal idea in the abstract.
E. g. רָּ M Tֶּ
2. In Kal, לerer and stand in similar, although not altogether the same relation, ${ }^{*}$ as nouns of such a form in the absolute and construct state, ( $\$ 90$, Parad. III.); but at the same time they differ in this respect, viz. that the first has a fixed and immutable Hholem, while the last has a pure and mutable one.

Hence, when a suffix is appended to the Inf. const., it throws back and
 besides this usual Hholem in the second syllable, other vowels are sometimes employed; e. g.



[^50] The Inf. may also have a fem. ending as a nomen verbale.
 10: 2.

These unusual forms are also employed as verbal nouns ; § 83, 10. 11. 14.
3. The Hebrew forms a kind of Gerund by using the Inf. const. with the preposition ? before it.
 cases is treated as being incorporated with the verb; as the division of syl-
 the Imperf. we have ?ִ? ? , On the other hand, other prefixes which are more loosely attached, do not bring about such a division of syllables,
 \}ִּe kione phol, etc.

## § 46.

The Imperative.

1. The leading form of the Imperative, which lies at the basis of the form of the Imperlect (\$47), and in a different way from the Infinitive ( $\$ 45$ ) attaches itself to the noun.* It represents the seco. $1 d$ person, and forms a feminine and a plural. For the third person it has no special form ( $\$ 127$, note 2); and even the second person must be expressed by the jussive form, when a negrative is added; e. g. 3 , b , thou shalt not kill, (not wan). The proper Passives have no Imper.; but the Reflexives admit one, such as Niphal and Hithpael. $\dagger$
2. The inflection is altogether like to that of the Imperfect, and may be understood by the explanations in $\$ 47$, 2. Like that tense, the Imper. also has a prolonged and a shortened form; the first after the manner of the hortatory, the second after that of the jussive, $(\$ 48,5)$.
[^51]Note 1. Besides the form ${ }^{-2}$ ? , we have also forms like luf. and Imperf.), 2 Sam. 13: 5. Normal is from
Nute 2. Sometimes in the fem. form and in the plural, a slort of (Qa-
 9: 10.
Note 3. In the form $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ sometimes falls away, and then a
 for ${ }^{3}$, Guttural.

## § 47.

## The Imperfect and its inflection.*

1. The persons of the Imperfect are formed in a way opposite to those of the Perfect ; inasmuch as abridged forms of the personal pronouns (Praeformatives) are put before the stem, i. e. before its abstract form

But since the tone is usually on the last syllable, the Praeformatives are more abridged than the Afformatives or suffixes of the Perfect, in order that the voice may not be delayed in hastening to the tone. The Praeformatives, therefore, retain only one leller of the pronouns, $(\neg, \Omega, \aleph, 2)$, and normally have a very short vowel. But since the stem-form becomes manifold by inflection, and the abridged prefix-pronouns are not sulficient in number and kinds always to distinguish the gender and number of the verb, the needed distinction is made by suffixes in addition to the prefixes.
2. The meaning and derivation of the Praeformatives, and also of the Suffixes, is for the most part quite plain. E. g.

[^52] first plural, בֵקבֹ, by the 2 of we; and no suffix is here needed.
 form suffixes 7 , as plur. masc., takes 4, 4 , where the 4 , (an abridgment of $\uparrow$, the index of the plur., see note 4 below), shows the plural number of the person in question. (The same index pluralitutis is employed in the third pers. plur. here, and also in the Perfect, $\S 44,1$, and in the last as common gender, but in the case before us only as masculine*). -The second plur. fem., ${ }^{\text {, }}$, suffixes $\overbrace{\text { IJ }}$-, perhaps from guish it.
(c) The third pers. sing. and plur. masc. have " prefix formative, as ? ? ? and this Yodh is probable employed in the room of the weaker

 ending $5-$. The second persons sing. and plur. exhibit the same forms in part as the third persons [and the context therefore must decide for the reader which is meant]. The $\frac{\pi}{3}-$, as before, is an index of the fem. plural.
3. In respect to retaining the second vowel of the stem-form, or dropping it and putting a Sheva in its place, all the forms which have no suffixes, follow the model them, follow the model substituting the Sheva), and
[Much more simple and easily remembered is the rule, that those persons which receive a suffix, beginning with a vowel, drop their second vowel and take a Sheva in its place; those whose suffixes begin with a consonant, relain the second vowel. E. g. . § 44, 2, foot note.-S.]

Note 1. The Hholem ( $\dot{o}$ ) in the last syllable is pure and mutable, (being a simple prolongation of the corresponding short vowel, $\S 9$, No. 10, 3). Therefore, (a) Seldom is it written plene, like לֹコp̧?. (b) Before Maqqeph
 It is dropped, when a suffix hegimning with a vowel is attached. In a few cases, just before the tone, the Iholem shortens into : [instead of Sheva];


Note 2. This Hholem, however, is rately found except in verbs middle $(-)$, like ${ }_{-}$. The intransitives (middle $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{O}$ ), usually take ( - ) in the


[^53]and then those with $\mathbf{O}$ are transitive, and those with $\mathbf{A}$ are intransitive; e. g.
 perl. with O, to corquer, with A, to be conquered, Ex. 17: 13. Job 14: 10. Ecldom have both forms the same meaning, as and ? he will bite. In some of the irregular verbs, the Imperf. sometimes takes $(-)$, instead of
 Imperfect, for distinction's sake, Imperf. A, Inperf. E, and Imperf. O; and these vowels we call character-vowels.
 times nceurs, in order to distinguish the third plur. fem. from the serond plur. fem.; and so it is in Chaldee and Arabic. E. g. fem. 8: 2:, comp. Gen. 30: 38. 1 Sam. 6: 12. On the other hand, the plur. fem.
 10. Juilg. 5: 26; and (as some suppose) in Job 17: 16. Is. 28: 3. (In vulgar Arabie, nefict, we eat is employed for the first pers. I eat; in the French $P a$ tois, Jurons for J'ai, I have. In the Pentateuch, for (ni ), especially after a consccutive, ( $\$ 48, b, 2$ ), as also in Arabic. There is a form still more abridged in the Imper., (see $\$ 46, n .3$ ). An anomaly without a parallel is in Ezek. 16: 50, after the analogy of verbs $\because \because \neq 2$ and ジ, (§ 66, 4. §71,5).

Note 4. The plur. forms which end in s, not unfrequently appear with the full ending ${ }^{-}$-; for the most part emphatic, and most firequently at the end of a scntence, in which case the cowel of the second syllable is mostly held fast by pause, as $\mathfrak{F i n}$, Ex. 15: 14,
 Ps. 4: 3. Gen. 18: 28-32. Is. 8: 12. 1 Sam. 9: 13. The preference, however, for this prolonged form at the close of a sentence or separate clanse, is shown plainly by Is. 26: 11, , the ${ }^{-1}$ - is the usual ending; but in the vulgar Arabic it is shortened. An


Nots 5. In like manner is sometimes prolonged, as and so usmally in Aralo, and Aramaean. In this case the i"- is hardly to be regarded as original, but ouly as an imitation of $j^{\circ-}$-. Examples in 1 Sam. 1: 14. Ruth 2: 8, 21. 3: 4, 18.

Note 6. In pause, the original vowel of the second syllable is restored,


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \qquad 48 . \\
& \text { Jussire and hortative in the Imprrefect and Imperative. }
\end{aligned}
$$

1. Some small compersation for the want, which the He-

[^54]brew and its kindred dialects exhibit, of definite forms for the relative tenses and modes of the verb, is made by the changes which the Imperf. undergoes; for to these a peculiar meaning belongs, which is either exclusive or at least predominant.
2. The common form of the Imperfect is separated from the prolonged (hortative) form, and also from an abbreviated (jussive) one; the first of which developes itself (with very few exceptions) only in the first person, the second in the second and third persons. The shorter form, i. e. the jussive, is not always distinguished orthographically, but oftentimes it coincides with the common normal form.
In Arabic, the difference is always plain; and lesides the common Indic. form, yaq-tu lu, there is, (a) A Subj., yaq-tu-la. (b) A Jussive, yaq-tul. (c) A so-called Fut. energic, yaq-tu-lan, which last comes near to the Hebrew hortative.
3. The characteristic of the Hortative is long A ( $\Pi_{\tau}$ ), ap. pended to the first persons, sing. and plur.; e. g. . It occurs in all the conjugations, and in all classes of the regular and irregular verbs, excepting the Passives. This hortative ending, $n_{-}$, has the tone in all cases where the formative suffixes $\stackrel{n}{ }-$ and $\uparrow$, have it; and consequently it changes the preceding vowel into a Sheva, just as they do.
 tone must rest on the penult.
Rarely the more obscure ending $n_{-}$stands instead of $\Pi_{-}$, ( $(\$ 27, n .4)$; e. g. 1 Sam. 28: 15. Ps. 20: 4. Sometimes the third person takes the ending in question, [with an Optative sense], as Is. 5: 19. Ezek. 23: 20. Ps. 20: 4. The second person has it only in the Imperative; see No. 5 below.

The ending $n-$ appended to nouns as an Acc. ending, designates the idea of direction toward a place $(\$ y 3,1)$. Analogically with this, the Hortative with this ending designates striving after a thing, directing the will towards any action. The form in question is used, therefore, to express excitement of one's self, resolution, wish, etc., i. e. it is used in an Optative sense, (see §126).
4. The Jussive is employed only in the second and third persons, and its form is modified in various ways; as will be shown in appropriate places. In the regular verb, only Hiphil
has a form appropriate to it. ${ }^{a}$ Verbs ${ }^{*}$ form it in Kal and Hiph$i l ;{ }^{\circ}$ and verbs ${ }^{\pi / 2}$ in all their conjugations. ${ }^{\circ}$

 3-7, common form ה-M, ; every where, here, does the Jussive throw awny the usual and normal ending $n_{-}$, and therefore the jussive form is called apocopate.

But let it be carefully noted here, that the plural Jussive has no form different from the common one, excepting that it does not admit the ending $7^{-1}$. Moreover, the second pers. sing. fem. sounds as
N. B. The meaning of this form of the second and third persons, is like to that of $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ appended to the first persons. It is employed particularly in expressing command, wish, etc. (§ 126).
5. The Imperative, which in general is closely allied to the Imperfect, admits both the prolonged and abridged forms, as described above. The Arabians have an Imper. energic. In most of the conjugations, however, only one of these forms is admissible; in others, both are used together.
E. g. the prolonged Imper. is found in Kal of the regular verb; as n nu,
 for nis. In Hiphil, however, both forms are employed; as and \}nen. The meaning here is not so discernibly different, as it is in the Imperf.; but still, the longer form is often used with emphasis; as ER,


## § 48 b . <br> Perfect and Imperfect with Vav consecutive.

1. The meaning of the two tenses is, as the Syntax will show more fully ( $\$ 124 . \$ 125$, comp. note at the bottom of page 93 above), by no means limited to the designation of the past and the future. To the most striking peculiarities of their use, and of the Hebrew language in general, belongs this peculiar usage, viz. that in continuous narrations of the past, only the first verb stands in the Perfect, and then the narration is conlimed by the Imperfect. Just the reverse of this takes place in continnous descriptions of the future, which begin with the Imperf., and are continued by the Perfect.
E. g. Gen. 1: 1, In the beginning God created (Perf.) the heavens and the earth.
（3）And God said（Imperf．）：Let there be light，and light was，（Imperf．）．（4） And God saw（Imperf．）that，etc．On the contrary：Is．7：17，Jehovah will bring（Imperf．）upon thee and upon thy people，and upon thy father＇s house， days succh，etc．（18）And it shall be（Perf．），in that day ．．．（19）And they shall come（Perf．）．This advance of time，this sequency of thought，is pre－ dominantly marked by the Vav copulative；which，however，partly in itself here receives a form different from the usual one，and partly has an influ－ ence on the forms of the Perfect and Imperfect to which it is prefixed．＊

2．Vav consecutive of the Imperfect takes the first rank． This is uttered by a Pattah followed by a Daghesh forte，with such variations as the letter which follows may require．E．g．
 fixes＊），as $\}$ $\$ 22,1$ ）．（b）Whenever the Imperf．is susceptible of abridgment in its form $(\$ 48,4)$ ，the Vav in question demands it；e．g．Hiphil לerpeng（ $\$ 52$ n．4）． Oftentimes this Vav draws back the tone to the penult，（except the word is in pause），［and provided the penult is capable of sustaining it］；e．g．the
 n．4）．It comes from this tendency to shorten，that the endings 筩－，第一，
 the first person，specially the singular，the case is somewhat different，par－ ticularly in the later books；for these frequently append $\pi_{-}$，when the Vav is prefixed；e．g．
N．B．In the earlier editions of this Grammar another view of the Vav in question is taken，according to which it is to be regarded as an abridgment of rative tense．Thus ，it happened［that］ he killed．But it is evident that the Vav consec．comprises in it the force of a copula；for，（1）The Imperf．with this Vav，standing before its noun，unites
 And where the noun comes first，the Vav still retains a place even before that，although it influences the verb in the same manner as before described；
 and the house was filled with smoke．Is．3：16．（2）This Vav is never used af－ ter those relatives and conjunctions which exclude and，（e．g．אַּאֲּשֶׁר， 4）．（3）In parallel passages，an ordinary 4 often stands in the place of it； see Is．59：16，and comp．Is． $63: 3,5,6$ ．In the same connection simple Vav stands，in Is．43：28．（4）When whole books or paragraphs commence with

[^55]the Vav consec., (as is often the case), this is to be regarded as a sign, that they are connected, or were deemed to be connected, with the preceding book, paragraph, etc.; e. g. Ex., and so Ezra ; and in like manner, Ruth, Esther, etc. In the same manner, the 1 Kings begins with the simple $\%$. (5) The other opinion, that stands for and no probability in its favour.

Vav consccutive, then, shonld be regarded as a strengthened form of the Vav copulative, with the meaning: and then, and so. We may compare with this the particles $\exists, \exists$,$\} , which, when strengthened, go into the like form;$ e. g. in तan
 ing of the verb after $V a v$ consec. falls in with the jussive form only by accident; and so it is with the prolonging of the form in the hortative; for it corresponds with such a form united to the Vav, only accidentally and not essentially.
3. The Vav consecutive in the Imperf. is the counterpart of Vav consecutive of the Perfect, which unites the Perfect to a future that precedes. This Vav of the Perfect, differs not in form from the common Vav; e. g. (after a Future) and it shall come to pass. But it affects that part of the forms of verbs, which have a penult tone, and throws the tone upon the ultimate.*

 ing of the tone forward by Vav consec., is not carried uniformly through, and some particular cases of the contrary seem rather strange. E. g. (a) It



$$
\begin{gathered}
\$ 49 \\
\text { Of the Participle. }
\end{gathered}
$$

1. Kal has a double Participle, viz. a participle active (named Poel $\dagger$ from the form of the old Paradigm here), and a participle passive, (called Paiil). This last should probably be regarded as the remnant of an old and lost passive form of
[^56]In Aramaean, the passives of Piel and Hiphil, even to the participial form, have fallen away and are lost.
2. In its original form, the participle active resembled in particular, the third pers. sing. of the Perfect, and is distinguished only by the longer vowel ( - for - ) peculiar to the nominal form. ${ }^{a}$ But as a present matter of fact, the most common participle of verbs midd. A has the form perp, this form being derived from $\}_{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{p}_{\text {, }}$, the O sound arising by means of obscuring the $A,(\S 9$, 10.2). The form now belongs only to verbal nouns, ( $\$ 83$, 1). Different in manner is the participle in Piel, Hiphil, and Hithpael.
(a) The original participial form seems to have been
 those of verbs middle A, retain the form of the Perfect.
3. The formation of the feminine and of the plural follows in the track of nouns which have a similar form, $(\$ 90 . \S 91)$.

 27: 30. Many reckon here 5oin, Is. 29: 14. 38:5; but this is rather third fem. sing. Imperf. Hiphil, from 5on. (Comp. a like construction in Is. 28: 16). The Hholem in is immutable; although for the most part it is written
 of tone, $\S 29,3, b$.
Note 2. The pussive participle not unfrequently has an active meaning, especially when it occurs in verbs intransitive. Thus wָּ holding (not held), Cant. 3: 8; זיּ Trusting (not trusted), Ps. 112: 7. One may compare this with the Latin Deponent.

## [B] Derived Conjugations.

§ 50.

## Niphal.

1. A complete characteristic of this conjugation consists in the prefix-syllable 2re, (corresponding to the seventh Conj. in Arab., which has 2א). But this characteristic fully appears no-
 the model of the Imper. and of the Imperfect. The latter reads bunp = = leaves z only as the characteristic, viz, ? ? The Part. is the same as this, excepting that the final vowel is prolonged; see in Par. B.

The distinctive signs here are g for Perf. and Part.; and Daghesh in the first radical of the stem for Inf., Imper., and Imperfect. The same applies to the irregular verbs; with the exception, that when the first radical letter is a Guttural, Daghesh is excluded, and the preceding vowel is prolonged as a compensation, (see $\S 62,4$ ).

## 2. In meaning, Niphal resembles the Greek Middle Voice.

 The following particulars will illustrate it:(a) The most immediate meaning is reflexive; e. g.
 designating the affections; e. g. שחִ to grieve one's self; to bemoan one's self, comp. ỏ $\delta \dot{v} \varrho \varepsilon \sigma \vartheta \alpha t$, lamentari.
 plead each other; $\gamma=\underset{\sim}{\top}$ to counsel, Niph. to take counsel; comp. the Midd. and

(c) Like (c) in Hithpael, and like the Greek Middle Voice, it lias the meaning of the active, with the addition of self, for one's self, etc.; e. g. to
 $\sigma \vartheta(x \iota \chi \iota \tau \overline{i v} \alpha$, to put a coat on one's self. In such cases, instead of the Acc. of the direct object, the Dative of an indirect one is comprised in the form of the verb.
 dren), Niph to be born.
(e) When Kal is intransitive, or is not used, then Niphal is the passive of Piel or Hiphil ; e. g. כָּ to be honoured, Niph. to become honoured, (passive of a causative verb); בָּדָ , Piel, to conceal, Hiph. to obliterate, destroy, and in Niphal, the passive of both these. In some cases, it comes in this way to agree in meaning with Kal intrans.; e. g. $\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathrm{T}}^{\boldsymbol{G}} \mathrm{T}$, in Kal and in Niphal, means to be sick. In the way of an active verb, it sometimes takes the Acc. after it, ( $\$ \mathbf{1 3 5}, 2$, note).

Examples of Denominatives here are צִ? to be cordial, from heart ; פְ to be born manful, from male.
N. B. The older Helrew grammarians here represented Niphal as the direct passive of Kal. This is incorrect; for Niphal has by no means the characteristics of the other passives; and in Kal, there are still some remains of an old passive, $(\$ 49,1)$. In Arabic, there is a Conj. which corresponds to Niphal (in-q $\alpha-\mathrm{l} \alpha-l a)$, which has its proper passive. In the He-
 Lam. 2: 14. By usage, Niphal is frequently passive ; but this is derived first from the reflexive. The prefix : ? has the force of a reflexive pronoun; just as 5 n has in Hithpael.*

[^57]Note 1. The form of the lnf. abs. is modelled after the Perfect, and stands
 this kind. Examples are : 3 לִּ
 The $i$ in the last syllable (which is essentially long) is also exhibited by the forms in the Inf. abs. of Piel and Pual, and resembles many Arab. Infinitives, which have $\hat{a}$ long at the close.
Note 2. Instead of Tseri ( - ) in the last syllable here, Pattah is employed when the word is in pause ; e. g. ל. ${ }^{2}$,hy, Gen. 21: 8 , as also in other cases ; comp. $\S 29 \mathrm{ad}$ fin. Moreover in the second and third pers. plur. fem., this Patlah is more frequent than the form presented in the Paradigm; e. g.


Note 3. When a monosyllable follows the Inf., Imper., and Imperf., it is common to retract the tone to the penult, [in order to avoid two accented syllables in immediate succession]. The ending ( $($.) then, of course, goes
 the other hand,



Note 4. For the first person sing. אֵקָּנּל ( with Hhireq) is equally com-
 Gen. 21: 24. Comp. §68, n. 3.

## § 51. <br> Piel and Pual.

1. The characteristic of these Conjugations, (Arab. Conj. II. qat-ta-la, Aram. ${ }^{3} \mathrm{E}$ (2), , consists in the doubling of the middle stem-letter. In the active (Piel), the Inf. and Imper. are the model of the Imperf. and the Participle; e. g. Inf. and Imper.
 last have a vocal Sheva under them. In the Passive (Pual), the vowels are more obscure ( $\breve{u}$ ), and the Inf. here is of the same form as the Perfect. In other respects the analogy is the same throughout as above. In the Perfect, out of the third pers. in Piel, the ( - ) falls away and Pattah takes its place. This is easily accounted for, on the ground that the final vowel

Passive. The $r$ in the Latin passive ending $=$ the reflexive pronoun se. In Slavian and Bohemian, amat-se stands for amatur ; in Dakoromanic, io me laudu $=I$ am praised. See Pott. Etymol. Forschh. Th. 1.s. 133 ff. Th. 2. s. 92. Bopp, Vergleich. Gramm. s. 686 ff .
in the stem-form here, is often $(-)$ as well as $(-)$. See note 1 below.

The ${ }^{\text {p }}$ before the Part. in the following Conjugations, may be derived from who? in the sense of any one, every one.

The characteristic of the whole of Piel and Pual, is the Daghesh in the middle stem-letter; which is omitted only in case a verb has a Guttural for its middle stem-letter [in which Daghesh is inadmissible], or in those forms of a verb where the middle letter must have a Sheva, in which case the Daghesh is sometimes (but not often) omitted. Examples of the former are not needed; of the latter, are instead of ?
 under the litera dagessanda ( $\$ 10,2$ note), to indicate a Daghesh omitted; e. g. הדָּל? for hen, Gen. 2: 23. comp. 9: 2. Judg. 16: 16. In Imperf, and Part., the Sheva under the Prafformatives serves to distinguish these Conjugations.
2. Piel designates various shades of meaning, as exhibited in the sequel:
(a) Intensity and repetition of an action; (just as intensive and iterative nouns are formed by the doubling of the middle radical, ( $\$ 83,6-9) .{ }^{*}$ E. g. pris to laugh, in Piel to joke (to laugh often or much); לָּw to ask, Piel to beg. Hence too it designates an action as having relation to many; e. g.
 the Syriac, often. It serves too to express several gradations in actions;

(b) The zealous doing of a thing causes one to influence and excite
 learn, Piel to teach. Oftentimes it takes the shade of permitting, helping, declaring, pronouncing, or seeming, so or so; as then to let live, צִּהּה to pronounce guiltless, 7!ำ to help bring forth.
(c) Erequently Denominatives are formed in this Conjugation, which designate the making a thing, or busying one's self thereuvith; e. g. i:p to make a nest, from tren a nest; to throw dust, from the destroying or injuring of a thing, like our behead, berate, etc.; as نيّ to tear up by the roots, to root up, from roon ; בit to cut off the tail, to smite


[^58]The like in some verbs, whose corresponding nouns are not now extant; as לop to stone, and to remove stones,* (quasi to unstone).

The meaning of the Passive (Pual) is obvious from the preceding view ; e. g. בa to steal; Piel (the same); Pual, to be stolen.

In Piel, the proper and original meaning of a verb is not unfrequently preserved, when Kal has assumed a tropical meaning; and this, hecause Piel naturally indicates the first and stronger impression, and that which is regarded as more forcibly striking the eye. F. g. אĒ to repair, mend, in Piel, but in Kal to heal; 준 in Piel to hew, hew out, in Kal to form, create; ins.

With an intransitive meaning, Piel also occurs as an intensive form; but
 wide open, Is. 48: 8. 60: 11 ; , רִ to be thoroughly drunk, Is. 34: 5, 7.

Note 1. The verb) in Piel frequently has ( - ) in the last syllable, instead
 (Ecc. 9: 15. 12: 9); also in the middle of a sentence, in continued discourse; while $(-)$ is more frequent at the end. Comp. 3? Is. 49: 21, with 3:3, Jos. 4: 14. Esth. 3: 1. Some verbs have, [even more usually], a Se-
 syllable, (instead of -), occurs only in Gen. 41: 51, viz. in in $_{\text {2n }}$, merely on
 which is analogous to Piel.

Note 2. In Inf., Imper., and Imperf., when a Maqqeph follows, the last
 The same in Hithpael. In the first person, the Praeform. s regularly takes

 With Vav consec. prefixed, we sometimes find forms pointed as 3 men instead of the normal $3=\frac{1}{2 x}$, Judg. 6: 9. For the normal occur like הַקַּקַּקְ, Is. 13: 18. Ezek. 34: 14.

Note 3. The Inf. absolute has the distinctive form 3p; as ion, Ps. 118:
 mains in Piel, like ל-̈p, Jer. 12: 17. 32: 33.

Note 4. Pual, in a few cases, takes short ŏ instead of short $\check{u}$; e. g. , when , Nah. 2: 4, comp. 3: 7. Ps. 94: 20. The discrepance is merely orthographic, when Shureq sometimes stands for Qibbuts; e. g. ํㅡㄴํำ, Judg. 18: 29.

[^59]Note 5. The Participle in Pual sometimes lets drop its preformatice $\approx$, and is then to be discriminated from the Perfect, only by its final Qamets, (in a like way the Part. in Niphal); e. g. חor for Me, 2 Kings 2: 10, comp.

## § 52.

Hiphil and Hophal.

1. The characteristic of the active is a in prefixed to the Perfect, and a a inserted in the second syllable. As to the flection of the verb, here (as in Piel), out of the third pers., it takes the analogical Puttah in the second syllable of the other persons.
(a) The Imperf. and Part. follow the model of the Infinitive in Hiphil;


 Toren, etc.; which may be explaned from the analogy of the Aramaean
 as it might seem to be, (see Note 1 below); and probably it took its rise from vowels originally shorter.
(d) The distinctive signs of these conjugations are, a il prefived to the Perf., Inf., and Imper. ; a Pattah in the first syllable of the Imperf. and Part., in Hiphil; and in Hophal, a Qibbuts or a Qamets Hhatuph, i. e. short $\breve{u}$ or ŏ under the Praeformatives.
2. The meaning is properly the causative of Kal, (more frequently than in Piel, $\$ 51,2, b$ ).
 Hiplı. to make holy, sanctify. But there are other shades of meaning: viz.
(a) If Kal has a transitive sense, then IIiphil governs a double Acc.; (Eee $\S 136,1$ ). (b) Often Piel and Hiphil coexist, with the same meaning; e. g. Ne he perished, Piel and Hiph. he destroyed. (c) Oftentimes only one of these two Conjugations is used; or, where both are employed, they have a diverse meaning ; e. g. $\because \underset{\text { g }}{ }$ to be weighty, Piel to honour, Hiph. to load, burden. (d) Verbs intransitive in Kal, merely hecome transitive in Hiphil; möy to stoop down, Hiph. to incline, i. e. to bend this or that.

Remarks. A causative and transitive meaning of IIphil often exists, according to the conception of the Hebrews, where other languages make use of intransitive expressions. In particular, the Helrew usually thinks of getling or acquiring a physical quality, (and rightly), as an active production


[^60]
 analogy, צָּ צָּ , in Hiph. to become rich, (prop. to acquire riches, to gain wealth). In particular is it applied to the assumption or acquisition of a colour ; e. g.


The Hebrew also regards many things that seem to be of a passive nature, as of an active energy ; e. g. הֶחֵ, not to be silent merely, but to keep
 (prop. to make long). Often this Cnnj. is used in an elliptical way; e. g.
 make it corrupt or bad; the word being implied, for it is often actually supplied.

To Denominatives the same remarks apply. They show very frequently
 to produce horns. Moreover they indicate the active use of any member, as הֶאָּ to give ear, (lit. to make ears); to babble, to slander, (prop. to make tongue, to use the tongue much), [quasi betongue].

The meaning of Hoplual, (like that of Niphal), may some-
 will be able, i. e. he can.

Note 1. Only the third pers. sing. and phur. of Hiphil holds fast to the a inserted or characteristic. On the contrary, the Inf., Imper., and Imperf. often take $(-)$ in its room, (which is the reiguing vowel in Chaldee). But the forms with (-) and ( - ), for the most part, differ by usage in their meaning. When Tseri $(-)$ is here employed, it is pure, being a simple lengthened tone; consequently, when the tone is moved, it may go into a short vowel $(-)$; or fall away and merely substitute a Sheva, when the form of a word requires it ; or, in case a Guttural ends the stem-word, it may take Pattah in its room. More particulars in the sequel.

Note 2. The Inf. absolute predominantly takes ( - ) both with and without
 9:8. Sometimes with $\mathfrak{x}$ for the characteristic, instead of the $\pi$, (after the Chaldee manner); as אַּשְּפּם, Jer. 25: 3. Unusual forms, where (-) stands even in the Inf. construct, may be seen in Deut. 26: 12. 32: 8.

Note 3. The Imperative very seldom is of the form המקִּת, (Ps. 94: 1 in pause, perhaps in Is. 43:8). Instead of this, the shorter form is usual;



Note 4. In Hiph. Imperfect the form with (-) is predominant for the Jus-

[^61]sive ；e．g．${ }^{3}$ ． Specially is this form adopted，when the 9 consecutive is prefixed；as and he divided，Gen．1：4．As this Tseri is pure，before a Maqqeph it is short－ ened，as iューデniph，and he held him，Judg．19：4．In the plural，（after the Aramaean fashion），the（ -- ）in question sometimes is dropped and goes into

 with Hhireq written defective，$=\begin{aligned} \text { nnen } \\ \text {－}\end{aligned}$ ，makes no difficulty to any one who understands well the insertion and omission of the Quiescents．

Note 5．In the Participle，the sing．with（－）is of doubtfil authority，Is． $53:$




Note 6．As to the Perfect，there are some anomalous forms；e．g．
 ner）；comp．Job 16：7．

Note 7．In the Imperf．and Part．，the characteristic $n$ is regularly dropped
 the omission of $n$ ，see $\$ 23,5$ ．）But the Inf．usually retains the $ה$ ；as 3nerne the connection being some what looser．But there are exceptions
 takes place only in verbs $\frac{1}{2}$ ）．As to the Inf．，sometimes we find stead of לְ，לַאֲבִיר， 1 Sanı．2：33，comp．Is．23：11．Ps．78： 17.

Note 8．As to the tone in Hiphil，the Afformatives $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ， $\mathrm{n}^{2}, 4$ ，do not take it．In the Perf．they have it，however，when Vav consecutive sends it upon


Note 9．The passive Hophal has sometimes short $\check{u}$ ，as well as short $o$ ； although in the regular verbs this is not frequent；e．g．בּק

 9．2）．

Note 10．The Inf．absolute takes（ - ）in the last syllable，for distinction＇s sake ；e．g．．nnm，Ezek．16：4；7ṇ，Josh．9：24．The Inf．const．，although presented in Par．B．，does not actually occur in the Scriptures．

## §53．

## Hithpael．

1．＇This Conj．attaches itself to Piel，inasmuch as it prefixes a to its form．
 phal ；（comp．Chald．$n \times$ ，Syr．$m s$ ，as prefixes）．Perhaps it is from the same root as the particle ne，（ $\$ 113,1$ ）．

2．The $m$ of the prefix undergoes a variety of changes．

When a word begins with a Sibilant, ( $0, \Psi, \mathfrak{v}$ ), these are transposed, i. e. they exchange places with the $\pi,(\$ 19,5)$.
 the preceding - is not only transposed, but also turned intu a $\quad \ddot{\circ}$; e. g.

(b) Before the Linguals, $7, \because, n$, the $\Omega$ of the pracfix is assimilated, (\$19, 2).
F. g.
 (Once before 9 , in Is. 33: 10.)
3. Hithpael has a variety of meanings, which may be arranged as follows:
(a) Reflcxive, which is the predominant meaning; e. g.
 muke one's self what the first conjugation (iu Kal) expresses; or to demean one's self as such; or to show, think, or represent one's self as so and so, or to
 self as cunning, to fcign wisdom, Ecc. 7: 16; 7 , to represent one's self as rich. Sometimes it falls in with Kal; e. g. . ָּר to mourn, (in Kal only in poetry); but in prose, Hithpael in the same sense; and moreover it can claim an Acc. case after it, (\$135. 2. n. 1) ; [like the Greek Midd., to grieve one's self for].
 another, Gen. 42: 1.
(c) [Like the Midd. Voice in Greek], it indicates a reflex action, in some way, upon one's self, (comp. Niph. lett. c). It may then take an Acc. to it-
 chains). It may also be used without an Acc.; as an, to walk about for himself.
(d) Seldom, yet sometimes, Passive; e. g. . Th, to be reckoned; Judg. 20: 15, 17. 21: 9. (See Niph. lett. d.)

The passive Hothpael is found only in a few cases; e. g. ${ }^{\text {a }}$. always, for -
The Denominatives with reflexive meaning, are: דִיחקיחה to turn Jew, from


Note. As in Piel so here, the last syllable frequently has a Pattah; e. g. Finnin, 2 Chron. 13: 7. 15: 8. So in the Inf., Imper., and Imperf.; e.g.
 3ninn , Ezek. 7:27. As in Piel we find the form frequent, which is like为 ( $\$ 51$. n. 2, penult syllable with Pattah instead of $(-)$; so here we


## § 54. Unusual Conjugations.

The unnsual Conjugations ( $\$ 40,2$ ) follow partly the model of Piel, and are formed by the doubling of one or more of the stem-letters, or [where this cannot take place] by a prolongation of the preceding vowel, and so generally by internal modification; and partly are they analogous to Hiphil, and are formed by letters or syllables prefixed. 'The first class of these have a Passive distinguished by its end-rowel; and also a Reflexive, formed by prefixing $r$ ? , after the manner of Hithpael.

Those which are analogous to Piel, and imitate it as to the manner of inflection, are as follows :
 pond to the Arabic Conjugations III. VI., qui-la la, qū-ti-la, ta-qû-ta-la).
 vious: לַּFn, etc. The examples are few in the regular verb; but those

 $\because-\operatorname{Fig})$. In verbs Ayin Doubled ( $\because: ँ, ~ § 66$ ), however, the forms in question

The meaning, like that of Piel, is often causative of Kal. It occurs sometimes with Piel, and has the same meaniug; as $\gamma$ צih and $\downarrow$, to oppress; sometimes it has a peculiar shade of meaning; as $\mathbf{z}$ ọ to turn, to change,
 (from 'ine to shine or be splendid, and so to set off one's self as splendid, to act haughtily, and thence, to act like a fool, or to make one act like a fool);

 serting a letter after the close of the first syllatle, ( $\$ 30,3)$; like $=2=\sim, 3-7$ ?
(2) Piele, Pulal, and Hithpalel; like and poun pass. refler. $ذ$ Bene, (like the Arab. Conj. IX. iqtälla and Conj. XI. iqtalla. These forms are predominantly used to designate permanent condition, or
 withered; and of all these there are no forms in Kal. Very frequent are these forms in verbs $\stackrel{\prime \prime}{*}$, where they supply the place of Piel and Hithpael, ( $\$ 71$, 7).

Pealal; like paperent with a repetition of the last two stem-letters, and employed to designate rapid and repeated movements or emotious of the smaller kind; as 38: 11, from

Lam. 1: 20. In the construction of nouns, this form designates littleness, smallness, $(\$ 83,23)$. Nearly related to this, is,
(4) Pilpel; which consists in the doubling of the two essential consonants in the stems of $\Sigma$ y and




On the other hand; the following forms attach themselves to Hiphil.
(5) Tiphel; like ${ }^{2}$, , Imperf. zealous). In Aramaean the like is found; e. g.

 83. No. 35).

Only in solitary examples forms appear, (7) Like
 as in the noun quent in Rabbinic), arising out of the mixture of Niph. and Hithpael ; as צִּ

Worthy of note is It is, however, a Denominative from gar taratantara) the tone of a trumpet. Enn. apud Servium ad Aen. IX. 503.

## § 55.

## Quadriliterals.

Of the formation of these we have already spoken $(\$ 30,3)$. The few verbs of this kind, (of nouns there are many), are modelled after Piel; one only after Hiphil. All the cases that occur follow:

Perf. $\begin{gathered}\text {, } \\ \text {, Job 26: 9, (with Pattah in the first syllable, after the manner }\end{gathered}$
 —Part. להָּּרְּבְּ, 1 Chron 15: 27.—After Hiphil, Gen. 13: 9, al. (from the noun לאֹמשׂ).

[^62]
## [C] Verbal Pronoun-suffixes.*

§ 56.
The Accusative of a pronoun, which follows an active verb, can be designated in two ways; (1) By uniting with the suffix-

 The last is the usual method ( $\$ 33$ ); and here we speak only of this. $\dagger$ We are concerned only with two things here, viz. the form of the suffix, and the changes which the form of the verb undergoes in consequence of its being appended.
§ $5 \%$
The Suffixes of the Verb.

1. These Suffixes express the Acc. case of the personal Pronoun. They are as follows:
Sing. 1. com.


Plur: 1. com. : $;$;


2. That these suffixes are abridged forms of the personal pronouns, is quite clear for the most part, and only a few forms need some explanation.
(a) In the suffix forms of the second person, $(\bar{\eta}, 5 \geqslant, \overbrace{7})$, there appears

[^63] regular verb, in order to exhibit their true nature. In respect to the irregular verbs, all the variations from the regular usage will be noticed in their appropriate place.
$\dagger$ For the other cases under No. 1, see § 119, 3.
$\ddagger$ The form =--- occurs very sehlom as a verbel-suffix, (Deut. 32: 26); 7-does not oceur at all. They are here presented as ground-forms, because they are frequently connected with nouns and prepositions.
to be at the basis a kindred lost form of the pronoun $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\square}$,
 to distinguish them from the afformative suffixes of the Perfect, $(\$ 44,1)$.
(b) In the third person, masc., the feeble $h$ in $\boldsymbol{H}_{T}-$ is dropped, and then $\dot{a}-u$ remains, out of which $0(\$ 7,1)$ comes, which is usually written $\ddagger-$ more seldom it-. -In the fem., the suffixes from Nom would analogically be
 per consonant remains, and as such takes Mappiq. Once $\underset{\sim}{N}$ for $\underset{\sim}{*}$, Ezek. 41: 15, as in Chald. and Arabic.
3. The variety of forms arises from a regard to the various phases which the verb assumes, to which the pronoun is annexed. In almost every case, three forms are distinguished :
(a) One which begins with a consonant; as These are appended to the forms of verbs which end in a vowel; e. g.

(b) A second and a third with the so-called union-vowels, ( the verbal forms which end in a consonant ; and of these, - belongs to
 ( - ) is the usual one, (in a few cases - ); and the same for the Imperative;
 of which it comes.-In the forms $\overbrace{-1}$, ,
 verb has a final Guttural, $\overbrace{i=}$, etc.; as שint. In pause, this union-halfvowel Sheva goes into ( - ), having the tone, as $\tau_{-}-\dagger$

Note 1. Forms peculiar and uncommon. The second pers. sing. masc.,
 ?-, -, Ps. 137: 6, and often in the later Psalms. (Also 7 - in the Perfect, Judg. 4: 20, against the rule).-In the third masc., 1 Ex. 32: 25. Num. 23: 8. In third fem., $n_{T}$ without Mappiq, Num. 15: 28. Jer. 44: 19.-The
 stands $\mathrm{v}^{2}$ - once, in Ex. 15: 5. On the rise of these forms, see § 32, n. \%.

Note 2. If one compares these verbal with the nominal suffixes ( $\$ 88$ ), he will see, (a) That here is a greater variety of forms than there, (because the relations and forms of the verb are more various). (b) The verbal suf-

[^64]fix, when it differs from the nominal one, is longer; e. g. צ-, , (me); but ${ }^{\circ}-$ (mine). The reason is, that the object of the verb is less closely connected with the verb, than the pronoun possessive with the noun; on which account the former may be expressed by as it were a separate word, ( $\$ 119,3$ ).
4. The suffix acquires more stability, at times, by rejecting the usual union-rouel, and taking a union-syllable in its room, (viz. :- , :-), which is inserted before it, in the Imperfect and for the most part when it is in Pause.
 is called Nun epenthetic ; it might more properly be named Vun demonstrative. This Nun is, for the most part, drawn into one with the suffix 2, and in this way a series of new forms arise; viz.

1 Pers.
2 Pers. $7 \div$, once $7 \div$ (Jer. 22: 24).
3 Pers. $\because \sim$ for กー・
1 Plur. - for - . (This 2 is not inserted in the other persons).
Note. The forms written fully with the Nin, are rare, and merely poetical, Jer. 5: 22. In the third fem. sing., moreover, they do not occur; nor in the first pers. plural. The contracted [Daghesh'd] forms are somewhat frequent, specially in pause.

This . Vun is of a demonstrative nature, and it belongs not to the verb itself, but to the pronoun which follows it, and serves energically to designate the Acc. case. In Chaldee, besides the Nun, there is a Yodh consonant also inserted. In Samaritan, $y$ is added in the Perfect; and in like cases $n$ also is inserted.

## § 58. <br> Perfect with pronominal Suffixes.

1. The endings (afformatives) of the Perfect have, in connection with pronoun-suffixes, in part a form different from what is found elsewhere ; viz.
(c) In the third pers. sing. fem., $\Gamma_{-}, 5_{\mp}$, the original feminine ending, for $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{F}}$.
(b) In second masc. sing. not only $\bar{T}-$, but also m-, to which the union-vowel altaches itself; yet only with $\because=$ -
(c) The second sing. fem. n , (the older form for m , comp.
and fem. 2 pers. 4 mpane § 32, n. $4 . \$ 44$, n. 4), which, taking the form of the first person, can be distinguished from it, only by virtue of the context.
(d) The second plur. masc., $1 m$ - for E -, is easily explained by the corresponding Arab. pron. antum, and verb qataltum.
 11. 5). Of the fem. 垪, no example is to be found with suffixes. Probably it was read, with them, as the masc. form is.

We shall first present the suffix-forms of the verb in the Perf. of Hiphil; because here, neither the stem-letters, nor the tone (see No. 2), is changed throughout.

## Hiph. Perf.

Sing.

$$
\text { חִקְמְים לm } 3
$$




1 c. 1 .

Plur.
3 c. חקְקִשימוּ
$2 m$.
1 c.
2. The tone inclines to the suffix appended, so as not to rest upon the stem. On this account, Kal demands several vowel-changes, which the shifting of the tone brings with it. The forms assumed in Kal, by reason of the suffixes, are the following: viz.

## Kal Perf.

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 3 c. |
| 3 f . |  |
|  | 2 m. |
| 3 f . |  |
| 1 c. 1 ? | 1 c. |

The connection of these forms with their respective suffixes, see fully exhibited in Par. C. The same shows, that ( - ) in Piel goes sometimes into ( - ), and sometimes into Sheva vocal.
Note 1. The suffixes of the second pers. plur., ロ--, im-), of the graver sort, and always bring down the tone upon them. Hence they are usually named grave suffixes. They of course occasion a greater change in the third pers. sing. masc., than elsewhere takes place;
 these suffixes, § 88 .




Note 3. The third sing. fem. שְָׁׁ ( viz. (a) It draws down the tone upon itself, (excepting when $=-$, $i=-$, are appended, see n .1 ), and so it takes the suffixes which make a syllable of
 (against the general rule in $\S 57,3, a$ ). (b) The other suffixes take unionvowels, but the tone is thrown back upor the penult, so that the final vow-

 10; 규:same form, as contructs of 4, third pers.).

Note 4. In the second masc. sing., the form prep lies everywhere at the basis, and the suffixes have no union-vowel, excepting in the case
 2. In the second sing. fem., $n$ - is sometimes written defective; as "?, ?, Jer. 15: 10. Cant. 4: 9. Ex. 2: 10. For the fem. with suff. the masc. is sometimes employed; as han , (thou [fem.] hast adjured us), Cant. 5: 9. Josh. 2: 17. Sometimes ( - ) is the penult vowel for the fem. with suff.; as


Note 5. Of the verb midd. O, one specimen occurs, in Ps. 13: 5, of shortened ŏ with the accent thrown forward; e. g.

## § 59.

Imperfect, with pronoun suffixes.
In the forms of the Imperfect, which end in the final stemletter, when the suffix is added, the vowel Hholem either falls
 a short ŏ; (See in Par. C).
Once Hhateph Qamets ( r ) is employed, in Jer. 31: 33. Instead of in third and second plur. Imperf, the form hemp is employed before suffixes, Cant. 1: 6. Jer. 2: 19. Job 19: 15; sometimes the same form without sutl. is used as fem., Jer. 49: 11. Ezek. 37: 7. The form with Nun demonstrative $(\$ 57,4)$, stands principally at the end of a sentence.
Note 1. The verbs with Imperf. A, (to which class all that have a Guttural for the third stem-letter belong), retain, in the second syllable of the Imperf. and the Imper. the full $\mathbf{A}$; and when this comes to stand in a
 4

Note 2. In the way of exception, but yet not unfrequently, the uninnvowel of the Imperf, with suffix is sometimes ( - ). E. g. ニưㅜㅜํํㄹ․, Ex. 29: 30, comp. 2: 17. Gen. 19: 19. 29: 32.

Note 3. Sometimes the suffixes are appended to the plur. forms in $\%$-; e. g. union-vowel, as ר. , Prov. 1: 28. Is. 60: 7, 10. Jer. 5: 22.
Note 4. In Piel, the ( - ) goes into Sheva vocul, (like the $\bar{o}$ in Kal); but
 Deut. 30: 4 ; more seldom into Hhireq parvum; as ■êzex, Job 16: 5 , comp. Ex. 31: 13. Is. 25: 1. In Hiphil, the Hhireq epenthetic normally remains; but in a few cases it falls out, and we have forms like 1 Sam, 17: 25, comp. §52, n. 4.
$\S 60$.
Inf., Imper., and Farticiple with suffixes.

1. The Inf. of an active verb may take suffixes in the Acc., and then it takes to itself the verbal suffix; e. g. . The Inf. as a nomen verbale, may have the nominal suffix, as Top the killing of me, ( 130,1, n.). It sounds, in this case, as Segholate nouns of the form [when they take a suffix], i. e. ?

Note 1. The Inf. with final ( - ) sounds, before suffixes, as שְִָּּׁ Gen. 19: 33; which is after the manner of nouns like

Note 2. Differing from the analogy of Segholate nouns, are forms which
 standing, Obad. v. 11. But again, after the analogy of Segholates we find other forms; e. g. $\square$ ? ŏs ${ }^{\text {ekhem }}$ ) your despising, Is. 30: 12.
2. The leading suffix-form of the Imper., in the same way as the Infinitive.

The forms קִשְׁל, ,קִשְׁקִ, remain unchanged before suffixes. Instead of
 see § $59, \mathrm{n} .1$.
3. The Participles shorten their vowels agreeably to the
 VII.


## II. Of the irregular Verb.*

## (A). Verbs with Gutturals.

$$
\oint 61 .
$$

Those verbs, in which one of the stem-letters is a Guttural, differ from the regular verb, in accordance with the prescriptions of general rules, $\$ 22$. Th $\times$ and $\pi$ belong to the present subject of our inquiries only as consonants, and not as vowel-letters. Resh ( $\boldsymbol{\square}$ ) participates in only a portion of the anomalies whic's belong to the Gutturals, $\$ 22,4$. We shall separate, for the sake of convenient inflection, the cases where the Guttural constitutes the first, the second, or the third stem-letter. The Paradigms marked D, E, F, (at the close of this work), in which only such Conjugations are omitted as are altogether regular, will make the whole matter quite plain; and this and some following $\S \S$ are designed for illustration of them.

## § 62. <br> Verbs first Guttural. $\dagger$

The departures here from the regular verb may be reduced to the following particulars: viz.

1. When the first stem-letter at the beginning of the verb would regularly have a simple Sheva, it here takes a composite one.
E. g. Inf.
2. When Praeformatives are employed, these take to themselves the short vowel that corresponds with that which is in the composite Sheva under the first stem-letter, ( $\$ 28,2$ ).
E. g.

Vice versa, if to the Praeformative belongs a vowel which is characteristic of form, then the first stem-letter takes a Sheva composite, which will be analogous to this.
E. g. Niph. פּ, (for

[^65] in these forms, see $\S 16,2, a)$.

Many verbs first Guttural, especially those which begin with $\pi$, when a Praeformative is annexed, take a simple Sheva under the Guttural, instead of a composite one; but in this case the Praeformative takes the same short vowel which the composite Sheva (if inserted) would exhibit.
 rians call this the rough conjunction, the other the smooth one. Both forms often occur in respect to the same verb.
3. When in such forms as ${ }^{\text {3 }}$, syllable comes by declension to fall away, i. e. becomes a She$v a$, the composite Sheva under the Guttural goes into the corresponding short vowel.
E. g.
 Comp. § 22, 4. § 28, 3.
4. In Inf., Imp., and Imperf. Niphal, where the first stem-letter would normally be doubled, the doubling is of course omitted before the Guttural, and the Praeformative takes $(-)$.
E. g. The regular verb would be as han hen he but in a verb first Gut-


## NOTES.

## I. Kal.

Note 1. In verbs $\mathbb{N}$, the Inf. const. and Imper. take ( - ) under the $\kappa$, (§

 the voice hastens toward it, the shorter $\left(-\frac{-1}{}\right)$ is put in the room of $\left(--\frac{1}{-1}\right)$;
障-

In other forms of the linper., the Guttural often exercises its influence
 particularly when the second radical is a Guttural, as Prov. 20: 16, Pattah is used, as :חیּה.
Note 2. The Imperf. with A, as the Paradigm shows, has regularly ( -- ) at the commencement; and in the rough conjunction it takes $(--)$, e. g.


when the verb has an Imperf. O; c. g. घionn, מimn. Altogether sui generis is בมุํㅐㅡ, Ezek. 23: 5.

Oftentimes $(-\bar{\sim})$ goes into the more rapid $\left(-\frac{1}{-}\right)$, when the tone is advanced
 -

## II. Hiphil and Hophal.

Note 3. The principle exhibited in Note 2 above, respecting $(--\bar{r})$ and $(-)$, is applicable here also, when the Vav consecutive is prefixed to the



Note 4. In Hiph. Perf. $(--)$ is sometimes changed into ( --1 ); and in Hophal ( - - $)$ goes occasionally into ( $-\dot{-}$, inasmuch as the short vowel is supported by a Methegh, and may therefore he extended, as miñํำ, Josh. 7:


## III. Peculiarities.

Note 5. In the two verhs (to be) and (to live), the Guttural is
 form, the usual law of Gutturals has its influence, as mint, (see No. 1 of this $\S$ ); but when any accession is made, the normal punctuation is the


## § 63.

Verbs middle Guttural; e. g. .
In this class of verbs, the departures from normal punctuation are comparatively unimportant, and are limited to the following: ${ }^{*}$

1. Where the Guttural would normally have a simple Sheva, it here takes a composite one, (which is - ).
 over, the comp. Sheva determines the preceding vowel ; as

2. Inasmuch as the Gutturals prefer the A sound, and operate less on the vowels which follow, than on those which precede, the normal vowels of the Inf. Kal, and of the Imperf. Niph. usually remains unchanged.

 in such cases; e. g. arsin. It is ouly in the Imper. and Imperf. Kal, that

* Hophal (not in the Paradigm) is declined as Kal ; Hiphil is regular.
the last syllable becomes Pattah by the influence of the Guttural, even in transitive verbs; e. g. ص. E(ִ). In Piel Perf., however, Pattah is more common with verbs second Guttural, than in the regular verb; e. g. צְ.

3. In Piel, Pual, and Hithpael, the Daghesh forte is inadmissible, $(\$ 22,1)$; but in the greater number of examples, the short vowel remains before $\pi, \pi$, and $s$, the Guttural having a Dag. forte implicitum, §22, 1.




Note 1. In the forms of Piel and Hithp., the tone is sometimes thrown back on the penult, and then the $(-)$ of the ultimate is shortened. Thus, $(a)$ Before monosyllabic words, according to $\$ 29,3 . b$; e. g. 17: 12, comp. Gen. 39: 14. Job 8: 18. (b) After Vav consecutive ; e. g. 규군:- ,


Note 2. Peculiar departures from rule are some forms in Perf. Piel; as
 51: 7.
§ 64.


1. According to the principles in $\S 22,2$, two cases occur here, the special usage of which should be shown; viz. (1) Either the normal vowel of the last syllable is retained, and then the Guttural takes a Pattah furtive under it; or, (2) The last vowel is dropped, and then a Pattah comes in its place. Particulars follow:
(a) The strong immutable vowels, $-, \mathfrak{i}, \mathfrak{\&},(\$ 25,1)$, always remain.

 which thus distinguishes itself from the Inper., (as in verbs second Guttural).
(b) The $\mathbf{O}$ of the Imper. and Imperf. Kal goes over into Pattah; e. g.

(c) In all the forms which take ( - ) in the last syllable, both modes of pointing may coëxist; althongh usage somewhat distinguishes them. E.g. Kal and Piel, the Part. is have
In the Imperf. and Inf. Niph. and in Perf., Imperf., Inf. Piel, the form with ( - ) stands at the beginning, or in the middle of a sentence; while that

 4: 20. The Inf. abs. holds fast the ( - ) ; the Inf. const. loses it ; e. g. Deut. 22: 7, elsewhere

In the shortened forms of Imper. and Imperf. Hiphil, only ( - ) is employed; as Inf. const. is as nבֵin; Job. 6: 26.
2. When the Guttural has a Sheva here, it retains the simple Sheva; and this because it is really always quiescent.
 $(-)$ comes in the place of Sheva simple; e. g.


The smoother conjunction with Sheva composite occurs only in some examples of first pers. plur. Perf., when the tone is thrown back; as Hos. 8: 2. Gen. 26: 29. In other cases the $(-)$ instead of the $(-)$ is found before the suffixes $\boldsymbol{\eta}_{-}$, , z_, ,


## (B) Contract Verbs.

§ 65.

The irregularities of these verbs depend on the feebleness of the nasal letter Nun. They are comprised in the following particulars:

1. The Inf. const. and Imper. frequently lose their Nun (§ 19,3 ), which would here be pointed with Sheva vocal ; e. g. U for ending, viz. $n-$, (after a Guttural $5-=$ ), $\S 79,2$; e. g. nem from

 form is common here; e. g. .
2. In all cases where Nun comes, by reason of a Praeformative, to stand in the end of a syllable, it assimilates itself to the second stem-letter, ( $\$ 19,2$ ).
 The Imperf. $\mathbf{O}$ is the most frequent; that in A is actually of rare occurrence, but is feasible; that in $\boldsymbol{E}$ occurs only in the instance given. Out of


All the other forms are regular; e. g. Perf., Inf. absolute, Part. in Kal ; Piel, Pual, Hithpael, etc.

In the Parad． $\mathbf{H}$ ，only the irregular Conjugations are presented．
The distinctive mark of this class of verbs is，that a Daghesh forle in the second radical immediately follows a Praeformative． But still this is not always sufficient；for some verbs $-\frac{1}{(1)(\$ 70), ~}$ and some $¥:(\S 66,5)$ ，assume the same appearances．The Imper．，moreover，as（also ，Gen．19：9），and $\%$ ，is like to that of verbs指。

Note 1．It belongs rather to the list of exceptions，than of normal forms when the cases No． 1 and 2 above hold fast their Nun ；e．g．Imper．w
 In Niphal the Nun radical is never retained ；in Hiph．and Hoph．，very sel－


On the other haud，when the second stem－letter is a Guttural，normally Nun is not dropped；e．g．יִּנִ．Seldom does the Nun fall out in such a

Note 2．In the anomalies of these verbs，the verb $\boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}^{2}$ has taken a part； for the $\}$ in this is treated after the manner of $y,(\$ 19,2)$ ．Hence Imperf．
 Niphal is regular，נְ ．
 radical assimilates itself like a feeble letter；e，g．בֶּ路
§ 66.
Verbs Ayin doubled（ジ），or middle radical doubled．
1．The principal irregularity of these verbs consists in this， viz．，that the last two stem－letters are often uttered together as one doubled letter；e．g． when a full vowel would normally stand between them，as iz for בize which have immutable vowels，or a Daghesh forte characteris－


2．The contracted monosyllabic stem obtains throughout the vowel which would normally belong to the second syllable of the full stem，and which（in a regular verb）comprises the essen－ tial characteristic of the verb，（ $\$ 43 . \mathrm{n} .1$ ）．

3．After this contraction，the last letter ought properly to have a Daghesh forte．This，however，（according to §20，3），
cannot be written at the end of a word；and the duplication of the radical letter makes its appearance by Daghesh forte，only when a form receives increase at the the end as


4．When the Afformative begins with a consonant，$(2, r)$ ， then，in order that the doubling of the the radical may be made more audible，a vowel is inserted between the stem－syllable and the afformative．
This vowel in the Perfect is i ；in the Imper．and Imperf．it is ${ }^{n}$ ，，e．g．

 maddata；which last is more analogous to the laws of Hebrew inflection．＊

5．The Praeformatives of the Imperf．Kal，Perf．Niphal，and of Hiphil and Hophal，（which，in the mode of contraction above described，come to stand by themselves in an open syllable）， take the long vowel which corresponds with the short one that they would normally have had，$(\$ 27,2, a)$ ．
E．g．Imperf．O，in Kal＝ō，for בion＝בion［comp．$\{27$ ，3．n． 3 ，the Arabian moreover says $y$ ăq－tul］；the Imperf．A takes another form；e．g．
 בion for in Hophal excepted）is pure and mutable．$\dagger$

Besides this usual method of constructing these forms，there is also another，（which is the predominant one in Chaldee），according to which the Imperf．runs thus：בon（yissobh）out of שִּ；Imperf．Hiphil，anh out of上ーロ～；Hoph．ney out of rase，so that the first syllable is made sharp by the doubling of the first radical．Even when accession is made to these forms，the second radical remains simple and without any Daghesh；which seems to imply，that the doubling of the first radical is a sufficient com－

[^66]


Occasionally the epenthetic i and $^{4}-$ are omitted; e.g. Jer. 19: 3,
 presented.
6. Several unusual forms lie at the basis here, which in part are more ancient and original than those of the regular verb. [So in Greek, in respect to verbs in $-\mu \mathrm{l}$ ].
E. g. בס్TM is contracted out of (with $\breve{a}$ in the Praeformative), which is the manner of the regular verb in Arabic.* Hiph. חִסon (for has, in the contracted stem-syllable, the shorter and more original $\dot{e}$, (like the Aramaean

7. The Accent has the peculiarity here, that it does not go forward upon the Afformatives which begin with a vowel, viz.
 In respect to the other Afformatives (beginning with a consonant), the accent falls on the epenthetic 4 or $\stackrel{\square}{ }$, which precedes them; (excepting themselves).

The consequence of this last usage is, of course, to shorten preceding
 (first vowel goes into -: the second into short $\mathfrak{\imath}$ ).
8. Instead of Yiel, Pual, and Hithp., in many verbs of this kind is employed the unfrequent Conjugation Poel, with its Passive and Reflexive, $(\$ 54,1)$.

 These are all regularly declined, like Piel.

## NOTES.

## I. Notes to Kal.

Note 1. The third pers. Perfect with $O$ final, (like $3 \vdots \downarrow, \S 43,1$ ) may pre-
 Gen. 49: 23.


[^67]a mutable vowel，and is written defectively，with few exceptions specially be－
 Since the vowel is mutable，it goes into short $\check{o}$ and $\breve{u}$ when it loses the tone；e．g． $\boldsymbol{F}_{7}^{7}$（rŏn），Job 38：7；with suffix as



Note 3．Examples of the form with $\breve{a}$（Pattah）in the Inf，Imper．，and Imperf．，（like 9；ЗР．．Gen．16：4， 5.

Examples of the Chaldaizing Imperf．are こ． $1 \mathrm{K} 9:$.8 ；解．

Note 4．Of the Part．an Aramaean form，oxied for orivi，occurs in Jer． 30：16，Kethibh．

## II．Niphal．

Note 5．Together with the most common form of the Paradigm，which has Pattah in the second syllable，other forms exist，which employ（－）final through the whole Conjugation；while some others employ Hholem；（anal－


 ：חּ，Num．17：10．Imperf．



## III．Hiphil and Hophal．

Note 6．The second syllable，instead of（ - ），may also have（ - ），spe－

 Ezek．31： 3.



Note 8．Chaldaizing forms of Hiphil and Hophal，are zo．y，Ex．13： 18 ；
 19： 23.

## IV．General Remarks．

Note 9．Nearest related to verbs $y^{\prime \prime}$（．Ayin doubled）are the verbs 4 ＂，as the Paradigms of their forms will show．The forms of $\Sigma シ ゙$ ，however，are
 and Kal and Hiphil with Vav consecutive；also in Hophal，and in the unusual Conjugations．On account of this intimate relation they have borrowed


Note 10．Together with the contracted forms，and particularly for cer－
tain Conjugations and tenses, the regular forms coexist. E. g.
 (elsewhere anem, Ezek. 3: 15. Sometimes the full form appears to be energic, Ps. 118: 11.

Note 11. In the remarks under No. 5 above, we have seen instances, where, in case of accession to the verb, the doubling is omitted, and also the full vowel, as 4. The same finds place, however, elsewhere; e. g. , for
 3. Jer. 8: 14. Without a Daghesh, but still with a full vowel,


Note 12. Although the tone in these verbs is not drawn forward by the Afformatives, (see No. 7 above), yet, when suffix-pronouns are appended, they move it forward; e. g. סַבּּׁ the Daghesh, in such cases, must, when long, of course be shortened; and in this process, Hholem of the Imperf. goes into Qibbuts, (rarely into Qamets Hhatuph), and Tsere in Hiphil into short Hhireq (as in third plur. fem. of the
 also, hy a removal of the tone, the Praeformatives lose their full vowel. Examples of change by the pronoun-suffix are


## (C). FeebleVerbs. (Verbs quiescent).

§ 67.
Verbs quiescent אตี; e. g. ַㅡㄴ (to eat).
So far as $x$ is a Guttural, and has a consonant-power, it has already been treated of in $\$ 62$, under verbs first Guttural. Here we are to consider it only as quiescent, i. e. as dropping its consonant sound, and coalescing with the vowel which precedes it. This happens only in a very few (and as it were worn out) verbs and forms, according to rules which follow:

1. There are five verbs in Kal Imperf., which make $\mathbb{N}$ to quiesce in Hholem ( $\hat{o}$ ) ; and some others use this form together with the Guttural one.
 are like the $\hat{\alpha}$ itself must be a contraction of $\left(-\frac{\square}{\tau}\right)$ or $\left(-\frac{1}{m}\right)$. The feebleness of these forms extends itself also to the last syllable, which usually has ( $\quad$ ) instead of O ; or, in case of conjunctive accents and continued discourse, it takes

(Comp. the exchange of $\dot{e}$ and $\check{\mu}, \S 64,1$, lett. c). When the accent is

 าะํ․․ (.Milra) with the distinctive ones. (Ouly in the book of Job, do we find the form

Note. Very seldom, ( - ) stauds under the Praeformative in Kal Imperf.;

2. In the first pers. sing. of the Imperf., where two Alephs come logether, the second, (i. e. the first stem-letter of the verb), is dropped, $(\$ 23,4)$.
E. g. 7 nix for are some few cases in which this happens; as 50m for 5ovin, Ps. 104: 29 ; Thּ
N. B. The Paradigm I. gives, with the feeble forms of the Imperf. Kal, only a synoptical view of the others.

Note 1. In the derived Conjugations, the feeble forms occur only here

 Is. 21: 14. [ $\quad$ Bn, in Is. 13: $20,=$, adds another vowel ( $\quad$ ) to those after which x may quiesce].
Note 2. In Piel, $x$ sometimes falls out by contraction, (like the in


## § 68.


Verbs Pe Yodh ( $-\frac{\pi}{-}$ ) are divided into two classes, which differ both in their origin, and in their mode of flexion. The first comprises the verbs which properly have a (r) for their first stemletter; (in Arabic such are read with a $v$ ), but this is softened down by the usage of the Hebrews to Yodh ( ${ }^{\square}$ ), and thus begins a considerable number of verbs.

The second class comprises those which in reality commence with a Yodh ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ), as in $\S 69$. A peculiar and third class, moreover, is formed, partly from the first and partly from the sccond class just named, whose peculiarity is, that in certain forms they take a Dughesh forte after them, inserted in the second radical, like verbs 情, (\$70).

The verb presents forms accordant with those of the first two classes above; e. g. (1)


The declension of the first class named above，（analogous to the Arabic 情），is regulated as follows：

1．In the Inf．construct，Imper．，and Imperf．，there are two modes of formation．About one half of these verbs have the feebler forms，viz．（a）Imperf．בing，with（ - ）also in the second syllable，which may be shortened into Seghol，or into Sheva vo－ $c a l$ ，as the case requires；while in the first syllable the $(-)$ is more fixed，inasmuch as the first radical（ ${ }^{n}$ ）quiesces in it．E．g．
Imper．יֶּשׁב
Infin． $\boldsymbol{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ שֶׁ，abridged in like manner，and provided with the fem．ending $n-2$ ，which imparts to the form more length and stability．
（b）The second class of these verbs constructs these forms with more strength，has an Imperf．A，and retains the Yodh radical．E．g．

Imperf．יִירֶ，where the Yodh radical coalesces in the Hhireq，（\＄24，2）．
That this last method of flexion may also be adopted by verbs of the frrst class，（which has often been overlooked and denied），may be established partly from the fact that verbs ${ }^{16}$ frequently exhibit it in Kal，while they resume their proper ${ }^{9}$ in Niph．，Hiph．，and Hophal；and partly from the fact，that the corresponding Arabic verbs 情 have a double method of in－ flexion．In fact，both forms sometimes occur in the same verb；e．g．F P ，

 32：22，and ${ }^{2}$ R＂，Is．10： 16.
In the first manner are formed （second syllable has＝by reason of the Guttural）；to the second class be－


2．The original and radical Vav（4）appears continually in Conj．Niph．，Hiph．，Hoph．；and in the Perf．and Part．Niph．； and in all Hiph．Hholem is joined with Vav；in Hophal，Shu－ req．In Niphal Imperf．，Inf．，and Imper．，the Vav remains as a proper consonant．
 As consonant in Niph．，


3．All the other forms，with few exceptions，（see n． 3,4 be－ low），are entirely regular．
In those forms where $Y_{o d h}$ is omitted，one may determine the nature of
the verl，in the Imperf．Kal，by the（ ${ }^{\circ}$ ）under the Praeformatives．In Niph．， Hiph．，Hoph．，the character of the verl may be recognized by the（ $(, 7,4)$ ，



Note 1．The Inf．Kal．，of the feebler form，has very seldom a masc．
 the concurrence of Guttural，the fem．form $-\sim$ hecomes $-=$ ，e．g．
 amples of the regular and firmer form with a suffix，are rer（Iösdhi），Job 38：4；：－0．t．Ezra 3：12．In the stronger form，moreover，the fem．Iuf．is


Note．2．The Imper．Kill has frequently the（ $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\bar{\tau}}$ ）of prolongation；e．g． （sil），（רְדָּ（come doun）， on Qamets；which［perhatis］depends on the influence of the Guttural in．

Note 3．The Imperf．of the form＝ine ，takes（ $=$ ）final，when a Guttural concurs；as $\because \because ワ$ ，,$~$ ，Jer．13：17．When the tone is drawn to the penult， the（ - ）of the second syllable is of course shortened into（ - ），i．e．before monosyllabic words，and after Vav consecutive；e．g．



The form can also drop its radical Yodh，when it comes to be pro－ longed；： $\mathfrak{m}$ ful，are the cases where this $Y o d h$ is dropped，after any other Praeforma－ tives than Yodh（ $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$．See Is．44： 8.

Note 4．In some stems，the feebleness of the form reaches even the

 12．Deut．4：1．8：1．19：1．26：1．Ps．69：36，et al．In Syriac，the $e$ is pre－ dominant here．In Hebrew，the feeble vocalization is found only in such forms of the Perf．as lose the full vowel under the first radical（＂）．

Note 5．In the Imperf．Niphul，in the way of exception，Yodh（ $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$stands instead of（4）；as 之rin，（ien．8：12，comp．Ex．19：13．The first pers．here


Note 6．In Piel the radical Yodh（ ${ }^{-}$）sometimes is dropped，after the Pracformative（ $(\square)$ ；and then the Praeformative takes the rowel which be－
 Nah．1： 4.

Note 7．The Imperf．Ifiphil，with accent retracted，takes a final Seghol，
 tain the formative $n$ ，like


Note 8．To the verbs $=\frac{1}{2}$ the verb

 the later writers and in poetry，will one find the regular forms of $\boldsymbol{i}_{\boldsymbol{i}=\boldsymbol{T}}^{\boldsymbol{T}}$ ，Im－
 Jer．51：50．On the other hand，the Perf．Kal is always and only
 radical nowhere appears．The common solution of the difficulty is，to as－ sume an obsolete $7 . \mathrm{T}_{-\tau}$ ；although one may well suppose that in a word so much used，the weak letters in $\underset{T}{i}=\frac{T}{T}$ itself might easily permit those other
 in the above cited（ $\$ 67$ ）חֵּ

§ 69.

These verbs separate themselves from verbs 情 essentially in the following particulars：

1．In Kal，only the stronger method of construction finds place，in which the radical Yodh（ ${ }^{\bullet}$ ）remains，$(\$ 68,1)$ ．

 （from 7ธֻทฯ），Gen．2： 7.

2．In Hiphil the Yodh radical remains，and quiesces in（ - ）．



The verbs of this kind are only －

Anomalous are certain forms of the Imperf．Hiph．，where before
 Jer．48：31．Hos．7：14．Besides，there are בnּun，Job 24： 21 ；and some－
 of this anomaly consists in this，viz．that the（ ${ }^{-}$）of the simple form looks like a radical letter，and is treated as belonging to the stem．［？This seems to be rather too superficial to be fairly charged upon the Masorites，who have surely shown an extensive knowledge of the language．Are not this and the preceding form to be put to the account of poetry，or perhaps to a dialectic pronunciation？Comp．the Doric，in the Greek tragedians］．

$$
\text { § } 70
$$

Verb 诣．Third Class，or contracted Verbs 啨．
To this third Class，are to be reckoned those verbs of Class

1．and Class II，whose Yodh does not quiesce in $\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{e}$ ，but，like a verb $\mu^{\boldsymbol{\xi}}$ ，assimilates itself to the next letter．

This takes place in some verbs throughout their actual forms ；e．g．．
 both these forms and also the weaker ones of the first or second class are found：pix，with prin（ 1 K．22：35）；，Imperf．


The beginner may very easily be led to regard these as belonging to the指 class；he must therefore，when he does not find them under that cate－ gory，resort in his lexicon to the words under Yodh．

In the Paradigms K，L，the discrepant forms of the two classes are ap－ propriately represented．The third follow ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ；and besides this，they very seldom occur．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { § } 71 . \\
& \text { Feeble Verbs 㖣; e.g. gip. }
\end{aligned}
$$

1．The middle stem－letter $\operatorname{Vav}$（ ${ }^{\circ}$ ）gives up its consonant－ power throughout，and is swallowed up in the leading vowel of the form，not only in the more usual cases（ $\$ 24,1$ ），where a Sheva precedes or follows，as for fon（be－vosh），but also when the Vav stands between two full vowels；as （qā－vūm），Eip for $\begin{gathered}\text { ip } \\ \text {（qa－vōm）．The root，of course，always ap－}\end{gathered}$ pears to be monosyllabic．

2．The vowel of the contracted stem is essentially the vowel of the second syllable；which，nearly throughout，comprises the essential characteristic of the forms，（ $(66,2)$ ．This character－ vowel becomes extended by its union with Vav，but not immu－ table．
 is mutable，is shown by $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{F}}$ ，


The verb intransitive，middle（．），sounds in Kal Perf．as na （for $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ （צָּun），see n． 1 below．

3．The Praeformatives of Kal Imperf．，Niph．Perf．，and of all Hiph．and Hoph．，which，before a monosyllabic stem，must make a simple or open syllable，obtain of course a long vowel， corresponding to the short one which by analogy they would receive，（ $\$ 27,2$ ）．
E．g．
tive vowel，moreover，is of course a mutable one；and therefore it may fall away，i．e．go into Sheva，when the tone is moved forward；as ？Im－ perf．plur．品䋨母．Only in Hophal is there an exception to the mutability in question；for the there seems to be more steadfast than the other sim－ ple pure vowels．Besides，the 1 seems to have been brought backward by a metathesis，in order to gain a position meet for contraction；c．g．Ent becomes ane（the like is not unfrequent in Hebrew），and then by con－ traction we have apart．

4．The unusual forms of the regular verb seem to lie at the root of the forms here；and in fact the forms in this class of verbs which are built on the normal forms of the regular verb， are more unfrequent than the others．


 al represents

5．In Perf．Niph．and Hiphil，before the Afformatives of first and second persons，an i epenthetic is inserted；and in Kal Imperf．，before the ending $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}}-$ an epenthetic ${ }^{-}-(\S 66,4)$ ；pro－ bably in order to soften the hardness of such forms as the nor－
 accent，and（as usual in such cases）shorten the preceding vow－ els．
 Minan；；inn but sometimes harder forms occur，without the epen－
 more frequent still are the harder forms in Hiphil，e．g．דुשְ류，Ex．20：25； also


6．＇The tone，as in verbs $\stackrel{y}{y}_{y}^{2}$ ，falls not on the Afformatives
 When the Afformatives are preceded by no epenthetic syllable，
 the tone of the epenthetic ${ }^{4}$ and ${ }^{\bullet}-$ ，see No． 5 above．

7．The normal Conjugations，Piel，Pual，and Hithp．，occur here very seldom．The only case in which＂medial remains a consonant，is that of שִּ ，Piel（but see n． 10 below）．In
 This last formation belongs to the later Hebraism，and is bor－ rowed from the Aramaean．

On the other hand；the place of Piel，etc．，is occupied by Pilel（ $\$ 54,2$ ），with its Passive and Reflexive．
 Rarely is Pilpel $(\$ 54,4)$ employed here；e．g．

## NOTES．

## I．Notes to Kal．

Note 1．Verbs middle E and O，in which normally the Part．and the Perf．are of the same form，are found in such forms as $\pi=$（for $\boldsymbol{n}$ ， pers，


The form $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ，as Part．and Perf．，is very seldom written $\mathrm{Exp}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ，（llos．10：
 16： 17.

Note 2．In the Inf．and Imper．，sonic verbs always take i；as ณ゙ヨ，ニi゙コ， nix；most of them take \％．But even these have it in the Inf．abs．，（like

 （with－under the Praeform．）is altogether sui generis．

Note 3．In the Imper．，the verbs with Afformatives keep the tone on the
 ning，in Judg．5：12．On the other hand，the $\Pi_{-}$of prolongation here，
 this also there are a few exceptions；see in Ps．7：8．Jer．3：12．40：5．

Note 4．The shortened Imperf．，employed as Jussive（ $\$ 48,4$ ），has the

 As Indicative，in poetry，we find $=\frac{-\pi}{\tau}$ ，$-\frac{\pi}{\text { ，}}$ ，Num．24：7．Mic．5：8．With Vav consec．，and before monosyllabic words，the tone is drawn hack，and
 28．In pause，the tone remains on the ultimate；e．g．－raph，Gen．11：28， 32 ，comp．5：5，8．By the concurrence of a Guttural，or of a $\boldsymbol{\square}$ ，the last syllable inay have a $\operatorname{Pattah}(=)$ ；e．g．hón

The full plur．ending $7^{7-}$ ，（ see No． 6 above），has the tone；hence 说ham， Gen．3：3， 4 ；；צים ，Ps．104：7；；，Joel 2：4，7， 9 ．

## II．Niphal．

 34．41：43．Inf．const．ש่ทחּ，Is．25：10．Comp．Note 9 below．

## III．Hiphil．

 20： 25 ；וֹมี ，Num．17：6，etc．

Note 7．In the Imper．，besides the usual $\quad \underset{\sim}{\text { phe }}$ ，the prolonged form is al－ so employed，e．g．．
 consec．，the tone rests on the penult；as anh ，In concurrence with
 13.

## IV．General Remarks．

Note 8．These verhs are most nearly related to verbs צ゙y（ $\$ 66$ ）；on which account one in analyzing them must look carefully to their diversi－ ties．Many forms of both verbs fully coincide；e．g．Kal lmperf．with Vav
 often borrow forms from each other；e．g．Kal Perf． form from

Note 9．In common with verbs $\mathfrak{y}$ also，（ $(66,5)$ ，these verbs have，in Niphal and Hiphil，the Chaldee and Rabbinis punctuation，according to which a short vowel followed by Daghesh forte is pat under the Praeformatives， instead of a long vowel．This form occurs often together with the usual


 lay down，settle down；；זָּיָ to spend the night，to lodge， stinate，stiff－necked．Other examples are לヶ2？，he is circumcised，Gen．17：26， 27．34：22，（from צוּ，not from צֵּ）．Forms with a Guttural：Zech． 2： 17 ；Hiph．

Therewith may be reckoned some forms of verbs first Guttural with $\boldsymbol{D}_{a}$－ ghesh implicitum，（which some would derive in a different way，or amend）；



Note 10．The verbs whose middle stem－letter（4）remains a consonant， are，in respect to this consonant，entirely regular．E．g．ר Tin，Imperf．רחֵm； צnsa，Imperf．ジク？；and regular，as to the 4 ，are all of those whose third radi－


## § 72.

Feeble Verbs ${ }^{\boxed{W}}$ ，e．g．．．
1．These verbs agree，in regard to their structure，altogether with the foregoing ones，and the Yodh here is subjected to all the changes of the $V a v$ there．



In Kal Perf．，moreover，several verbs have another series of forms，which
are like to a Hiphil which has suffered the aphaeresis of the $n$ ；e．g．
 13，and also $\underset{T}{ }=$ Zב＿Lam．3：58．Besides these，the full Hiphil also occurs；
 Part． $\mathfrak{i} \boldsymbol{\square}$



2．The Hiphil－forms brought to view may easily be traced to verbs $\because$ ，and may in part belong to them．The same is true also of Niphal，Pilel，and Hithpalel．
 are these verbs nearly related to those 4 ．Hence several of them occur

 others，one form is more dominant；as to rejoice，ל，期 once in Prov．23： 24．Only a very few appear to be exclusively $\boldsymbol{n}^{*}$ ，viz．
Remares．The old grammarians allow of no such class of verbs as these， but ranged them all under $\stackrel{\sharp}{*}$ ；which in part is correct．In the later Ara－ bie，there occurs the like abridgment of the Hiphil，（Conj．IV），in respect to verbs＂$\because$ ．But on the other hand，both the Arabic and the Ethiopic have verbs actually $\stackrel{4}{ }$ ；；and the Hebrew clearly has some with a Yodh con－ sonant；e．g． a mutual approximation of stems so nearly related．The Par．（ $\mathbf{N}$ ）is con－ nected with the verbs $\stackrel{\text {＂̈n }}{\text {（Par．M）；so that the parallelism between them is }}$ quite plain．All which is not developed in the former Paradigm，coincides with the forms in the latter．

Note 1．Examples of the Inf．abs．are בiㄱ，Judg．11：25；niׂ，Is．22：7； also，in Jer．50：34，we have ニッ․



Note 3．As Part．act．Kal，iל？is once found，in Neh．13：21．Part．pas－ sive，שְׂׂם，or（var．lect．）， 2 Sam．13： 32.

Note 4．Verhs $\mathfrak{N y}$ ，hold fast the consonant power of $\kappa$ ，at all times，and are irregular only in the manner described in $\S 63$ ．Still，the weakness of the x in the Perf．of the frequent verb $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{v}$ ，occasions the weakening of its normal（ - ）into（ - ），and in a closed syllable into（ - or - ），when the tone is thrown off，and no full vowel precedes it ；（altogether in the manner of

 Throx in Judg．13：6． 1 Sam．1：20，also in Hiph． 1 Sam．1：28．Comp．§ 44．n．2．Some examples，where x has given up its consonant－power，i．e． become quiescent，are（נָּ

## § 73.


The $x$ appears in these verbs partly as a very slender Guttural, scarcely audible, and partly as a Quiescent, in accordance with the following rules:

1. In the forms which end with the third stem-letter, the last syllable has always the normal vowels; with the exception that Pattah, when it comes to stand before the $\kappa$, goes of course into the corresponding long vowiel, i. e. Qamets.

This extension of the Pattah into Qamets takes place in Kal Perf., Imperf., Imper. ; in the Perf. of Niphal, Piel, Pual, and Hophal, ( $\$ 23,1$ ); but still, as this is a kind of accidental prolougation, the long vowel $(-)$ is mutable, ( $\$ 25,2$. note); and so it inay fall away by declension; e. g. ※צָּ !
N. B. The Kal Imperf. and the Imper. have a final ( - ), in accordance with the laws of third Gutturals, §64, 1.
2. Also before the Afformatives which begin with $n$ or 2 , the ${ }^{*}$ becomes quiescent in various ways: viz.
(1) In Perf. Kal, in $(-)$; as ${\underset{\tau}{2}}^{\times N}$
 of the same, it takes (-); e. g. Kal Imper. so of the rest.

The ground of $(-)$ and $(-)$ in these Conjugations has its basis in the resemblance of these verbs to those $\mathfrak{K i n}^{\pi / 3},(\$ 74,2)$, and their approximation to them.

Before the suffixes $\boldsymbol{\eta}_{-}, \mathrm{F}_{-}$, $\mathfrak{F}_{-}$, the x remains a Guttural, and takes
 (Comp. §64, 2. note). The ground of this punctuation is, that those suffixes require a vocal Sheva before them, while they usually take the tone upon themselves.
3. Before the Afformatives which begin with a vowel, the $x$ is a consonant, and the form is normal. (See in full, Par. O).

## NOTES.

Note 1. Verbs middle ( $\frac{-}{1}$ ), retain this even in the other persons of the

 Is. 7: 14. Gen. 33: 11, (like to $\mathrm{H}_{2}$

Note 2. In the Inf. a fem. form is sometimes employed, as rixy, Lev. 12: 4, for מֶּ

Note 3. The fem. Part. is usually contracted; e. g. תxצiz, seldom as
 28:57. In the form is drawn back after the manner of the Syriac.

Note 4. Aleph sometimes falls out, when quiescent ; c. g.


See more respecting these Verbs, in § 74. No. VI.
§ 74.


1. These verbs, (like verbs $-\frac{\square}{}, \$ 6, \$ 69$ ), comprise under one name two classes of the irregular verbs, viz. those of "t and 43; which in Arabic and Ethiopic are more plainly separated. Instead of the original ${ }^{4}$ and ${ }^{4}$, in all the forms which end with the third radical, a $\pi$ appears in their place as the representative of the vowel to be sounded, ( $\$ 25,5$. note). Hence they are named (merely from their appearance) ${ }^{\text {ind }}$.
 er part of these verbs are "3; the verbs "3 appear in only a few forms. The separation is therefore less distinct than that of $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{\pi}{2}$.


 verbs essentially different appear ; (see Lex. sub ripur). The Syrians go still further in amalgamating these forms, inasmuch as they commingle $\mathfrak{*}$


Eutirely different are the verbs whose final letter is in consonant (i. e. 제 He Mappiq); e. g. …롶. These verbs are treated simply as third Gutlurals. In the meantime, there appears to be some feeble verbs, whose $\boldsymbol{n}$ final has arisen from in consonant, which gives up its consonant-power; e. g. הָּ (Arab, maz). In this way it comes about, that feeble verbs appear sometimes as kindred with verbs Hi , the medium of transition being verbs


The grammatical structure of these verbs (see Par. P) rests on the following basis:

1. Instead of the original Yodll or Vav radical, there appears in all cases where this would appear at the end of a word, a $\pi$ vicarious, which better represents the vowel to be sonnded there. This vowel, moreover, is, for every form and Conjugation, the same.



$\mathrm{H}_{-}$-, in the Inf. absolute, (excepting Hiph. and Hoph.) ; as riby, etc.
Only the Part. pass. Kal is excepted, where Yodh appears at the end of the word; e. g. ${ }^{\text {nimp }}$; and thus with some of the derivates, ( $\S 84, V_{\text {. }}$ ).

The Inf. const. always has the fem. ending r; as riba, Piel niba, etc.

The explanation of these forms may now be subjoined :
 in Niphal and Hophal. (b) In Piel and Hithp., the forms with final A are the basis, (like קִּ (like the Arab. aqtala, §52, 1). (c) The Imperf. Kal, הלְ국, is from an Im-
 (see note 4 below). The same applies to the other Conjugations, where, even in the regular verb, kindred forms having ( - ) develope themselves, ( $\$$ 50. n. 2. §53. note).

The ( - ) of the Imper. has its ground in this, viz., that the shorter form here throws more of the tone on the ultimate, which acquires more stability by the $(-)$. (See and comp, the const, state of nouns in $\pi_{-}, \S 87,2 . c$.

The Hholem of the Inf. abs. is used in all the Conjugations, which admit a separate form for it.
2. Before the Afformatives which begin with a $n$ or 2 , the original $n$ comes in, but never as a consonant. The Pattah which precedes it would appropriately form the diphthong $a i$; but in the Perfect, this concurrence makes ( $\because$ ) in Kal, and ( $\because-)$ in the other Conjugations; while in the Imper. and Imperf. it goes into ( --$)$, as less full and distinct.
E. g. in Piel, out of the old form sometimes is further narrowed into mish. In the Imperf. we have (instead
 held fast ; but in active and derived Conjugations, and in the Reflexives, the forms ( $\uparrow-)$ and $(\stackrel{n}{ }-$ ) are interchangeably used; (see Notes 8 and 12). Arranged they stand thus:

[^68]${ }^{4}=$, in Perf. passives throughout.
--, in Imper. and Imperf. always; as
The diphthongal forms are preserved throughout in the Arabic and Etliiopic, and contracted only in the popular dialect. In Chaldee and Syriar, the contracted forms are predominant; yet the Syriac has also, in Kal,

3. Before the Afformatives beginning with vowels, ( $\Pi_{-}$, , ${ }_{-}$, --), Yodh with its preceding vowel both fall away.

 n. 4.11 .

In like manner, Yodh with the preceding vowel, falls out, when a suffix is appended ; e. g. 〒媳, (note 18).
4. The Yodh or third radical also falls away in the fem. of the third sing. Perf., inasmuch as $\pi-$ is appended as a fem. ending; e. g. rity. Such was the older form; but it has now become rare (Note 1), for there has been added to it another index of the fem., i. e. $n_{\bar{\tau}}$, so that the ordinary form now is $n_{\tau}$ ? and so it is, in all the Conjugations.


5. Very conspicuous here is the abridged Imperfect, which occurs in all the Conjugations, and arises from casting away the ending $n_{-}$; which also occasions some other changes in the form; (see in Notes 3, 7, 9, 14). In like manner, in some Conjugations, is the shortened Imper. formed, by casting away the ก-: (see Note 10, 15).

## NOTES.

## I. Notes to Kal.

 (made from mon usage, (sce above in No. 4). An example of the old form is in ny
 Jer. 13: 19. But in connection with suffixes, the old ending is everywhere still preserved, (see n. 18 below).

Note 2. The Inf. abs. is also written as $\mathfrak{i n}$, Gen. 26: 28. The Inf. const. seldom occurs in the form הïu, Gen. $50: 20$; usual is a fem. Inf. form, 45, 2. lett. b.

Note 3．The shortening of the Imperf．（see No． 5 above）occasions in Kal the following changes：
（a）Most frequently the first stem－letter takes a helping－Seghol，or，in case
 as as for רִּ
（b）In consequence of this，the short Hhireq of the Praeform．sometimes goes into（ - ），and this，because it now stands in an open syllable ；e．g．$\times \underset{\sim}{n}$

（c）In some cases，specially in those designated in $\$ 28,4$ ，the helping－
 in the same verb；e．g．Nר．

 vowel，as חִּ
（e）The verbs דָּדָה to be，and to live，whose rude abbreviated forms
 ond Yodh draws to itself the vowel $i$ ，and flows into it，thus making it long i．（Comp，the derivates


After Vav consec．full forms without apocope sometimes occur ；specially in the first person，and in the later books．E．g．． times，but not in the Pent．）；also newn four times．

Note 4．The original Yodh sometimes remains even before the vowel－ Afformatives，（see No． 3 above），specially in and before Pause；before the full plur．ending 鳥－$^{-1}$ or where particular emphasis rests upon the word． E．g．


Note 5．The Part．active constructs a second form，in which the Yodh is
 23．The Part．passive sometimes omits its Yodh final；as物范，Job 15： 22.

Note 6．Seldom are the forms written defectivè ；דָּ（for


## I1．Niphal．

Note 7．The apocope of the end－syllable of the Imperf．here，usually oc－ casions no further change；e．g．3⿶凵⿱亠凶禸

 （out of הצָำ．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ，Prov．22： 24.

## III．Piel，Pual，and Hithpael．

Note 8．In the Perf．Piel，the majority of cases take（－）instead of（ - ）；
e. g.
 ry, Pual always takes ( - -).

Note 9. After apocope, the Imperf. loses the Daghesh forte in the second stem-letter, (comp. $\{20,3$ ). Hence dom is the Pattah in these cases prolonged into $(-)$; as 14; "אְָּ. , Ps. 45: 12. (Comp. n. 7).

Note 10. In Piel and Hithp. the Imper. with apocope occurs; e. g. (for


Note 11. A few cases there are of Yodh retained, which elsewhere are not to be found; e. g. lmperf.

## IV. Hiphil and Hophal.

Note 12. In the Perf. of Hiphil, the two forms, man and ming are abont equally employed; but before suffixes, the last is preferred as being the shorter. In Hophal we find only ( -1 ).

 Lev. 19: 20. Of the verb viz. חַּרַּה (adverbial, much), for the Inf. pleonastically employed, and nizni for the Inf. construct. (Comp. Gen.41: 49. 22: 17. Deut 28: 63.)

Note 14. The abridged Imperf. is made in two ways; (a) Without a help-

 Examples with Gutturals are $3=1, N u m$. 23: 2; distinguished from some of Kal forms in no way but by the sense.

Note 15. The Inper. apoc. has constantly the helping-vowel (-) or (-);
 3

Note 16. The Imperf. retains the Yodh here only in from , from Job 19: 2.

## V. General Remarks.

Note 17. In Aramaean, where, as already mentioned, the verbs «̌3 and Hh flow into each other, both of them terminate the Imperf. and the Part. of all the Conjugations, without any diversity, in $(\Omega-)$ or ( $(-)$. It is an imitation of this, when, in the Heb., specially in the later writers and in the poets, forms of the Inf., the Imper., and the Imperf. terminate in ( $\mathrm{i}-\ldots$ ), less often in ( $\aleph-)$ and ( $-\ldots$ ). E. g. Inf.



[^69]The Yodh itself, (after the Syrian fashion), is sometimes found at the end
 this, the plur. חקמְֶׁ, Josh. 14: 8.

Note 18. Three verbs make a Pilel, or its Reflexive, (\$ 54, 2), and in such a way that the third radical becomes \%, and the fourth stem-letter a $\pi$,


 !

Note 19. Before Suffixes, the $n$ at the end with the vowel next preceding,


 4 above), with $(\tau)$ final shortened, returns before suffixes; as also in the
 Job 33: 4.

## VI. Kindred nature of

The near relationship of the verbs ${ }^{* 3}$ and $\mathbb{*}$, (which come together in Aramaean), is followed by the natural consequence, that these verbs not unfrequently borrow each others forms; in particular is this the case, in the later writers and in poetry.

Note 21. These resemblances may be thus classified: (a) The vowels of





 8: 21.
(c) Another class are those which entirely conform to " $^{4}$, in both re-

 10: 5. Part. pass. בָּשׂ, Ps. 32: 1. Niph. 1 Sam. 10: 6. Inf. ת. הּ, 1 Sam. 10: 13.

Note 22. On the contrary, some verbs follow the analogy of «"3. (a) In respect to the consonants; as


ply to other examples ; and morcover the reading, in most cases, oscillates between $(-$.$) and (-). See, moreover, Gen. 26: 29. Lev. 18: 7. Josh. 7:9. 9: 24. Dan. 1: 13$. Ezek. 5: 12.

## § 75. <br> Verbs doubly irregular.

By these we mean such verbs as have two stem-letters in them, such as occasion the anomalies already explained above, without any reference, however, to the Guttural verbs. No new changes here take place. Besides this, use only can teach, whether in the cases where a double anomaly might exist, both of the anomalies, or only one, or neither, actually have place.
E. g. בָּדי has an Imperf. (Nah. 3: 7), and צִּדּד (Gen. 31: 40), after the analogy of verbs " again.

Examples of doubly anomalous verbs, and of the more difficult forms, are the following :

 14.
 הּ

(c) Verbs א゙פ and ל" (comp. § 67 and § 74); as
 41: 25 ; Imper. (see § 23, 2, n. 2. § 74, n. 4); Hiph. Im-
 -
 Inf. צֵא, Hiph. הצוֹציא.


 perf. הyin, apoc. ming.

 Mic. 1: 15 ; Imper.
(g) The verb (to live) deserves notice, since it is treated as a verb $=: ゙ y$, and so has $\boldsymbol{n}$ In in the Perf., Gen. 3: 22. It occurs not, in Hebrew, out of this form. Frequent is the other kindred form, viz.
§ 76.
The relation of irregular verbs to each other.


A, y, of manifest by the same or a very similar meaning, as well as in the like inflections, in forms common to both, and in mutual exchanges. This mutual relation rests, in the main, on the essential likeness of the two stem-consonants which have the firmer and harder sound, to which the common meaning of both attaches, (radix bilitera, § 30, 2); so that the third feeble radical does not enter into the account.
 mean to fy.
In this way are related, with respect to form and meaning, (1) Verbs 4 and $\because \because \%$, (in which the first and last letters are the essential ones), such as

 are related to each other, and to the foregoing class. To each other; as

旅 and More seldom do verbs $\mathbb{N}_{\text {g }}$ belong here; as and שָּ
(3) Verbs ${ }^{\text {Hi }}$ ) and " ${ }^{*}$, (in which the first two letters are the essential ones), stand partly related to each other, and partly to the preceding classes. To each other; as אָָּ and preceding classes; as etc.

## § 77.

## Defective Verbs.

In many cases, where two related irregular verbs both occur, and are of the same meaning, both are defective, i. e. not used in all their forms. Inasmuch as, for the most part, the one lias not the tenses and forms which are presented by the other, they mutually aid each other in making out a complete verb.
 latum, ferre. But in Hebrew there is this difference, viz. that the verbs here, of this kind, are almost universally related in form; as in Greek, $\beta \alpha i \nu \omega, \varepsilon_{\beta}^{\beta} \eta \nu$ —from $\beta \dot{\alpha}-\omega$.

[^70]A synopsis of the most common anomalous verbs employed in this way，may be here subjoined：
 an intransitive meaning．
 コージッド

 Hiphil and Hoph．



TM，to be narrow，strait．Thence
 Mr is transitive：to press upon，besige．

In respect to $\prod_{2}{ }_{-}{ }_{\tau}$ ，to go，see above，§ 68, n． 8.
Note 1．Like to these cases are those，where the different conjugations of a verl，having the same meaning，mutually borrow and lend the tenses．

 to compensate for the want of these tenses in Kal．－w：y，Perf．Niph． on accomnt of the faiture of a Perf．ir Kal；but Imperf．Kal，win ；Imper．


Note 2．The older grammarians often speak of formae mixtae，in which， they say，are united the tenses and genders of different Conjugations． With correct grammatical views，most of these vanish，（for example， §47，n．3）．Some others appear to he misconceptions and errors，e．g． Trent thy formation，Ezek．16：31，where the plur．suff．is appended to the ending $5^{-4}$－，which one was accustomed to regard as plural．Others re－ solve themselves into incorrect readings of the text．

## CHAPTER III．

OF THE NOUN．
§ 78.
General View．
1．It is important above all things，in treating of the struc－ ture of the Noun，to take a close view of its relation to the verb．

When we present the verbal form $(\$ 30,1)$, i. e. the third pers. sing. of the Perf. as the Ground or Stem-form, it becomes easy to derive most of the nouns from this; and even such nouns as are primitives, or derived from other nouns, accommodate themselves to the form and analogy of verbals. The doctrine in respect to gender, moreover, belongs to this subject, ( $\$ 79$, comp. §92).
The Adjective, in respect to form, attaches itself to the noun; although forms of abstract meaning occur, as adjectives, only in a metaphorical way, (§82, n. 1).
2. An ordinary inflection of the noun, by cases, does not exist in Hebrew. Scarcely have any remains been discovered of case-endings which have gone into desuetude, ( $\$ 88$ ). The case-relation of a noun is to be known, either by the place of the noun in a sentence, or else it is marked by prepositions. The form of the noun is not changed thereby; and this matter, therefore, belongs to Syntax, rather than to the present category, ( $\$ 115$ ). On the other hand, the annexation of endings which mark the Plural, Dual, and Feminine Gender, the pronominal Suffixes, and the sequency of a Genitive case, occasion various changes in the forms of nouns; and to these the flexion or cleclension of nouns in Hebrew limits itself. For the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives, no special forms exist in Hebrew, and they must therefore be expressed by syntactical arrangement, (\$117).

## § 79. <br> Of Gender.

1. The Hebrew language knows, like all the Semitic dialects, merely a two-fold gender; a masculine and a feminine. Inanimate physical objects and abstracts, which other stem-languages mark by the neuter, are here regarded as masc. or fem.; but mostly as being of the latter; (see $\S 105,2-4$ ).
2. The masculine gender, as the predominant and more important one, has no special mark of distinction.

The original ending of the feminine gender of nouns, was $\pi=$, as developed in the Perf. of verbs, in the third pers. sing. feminine, $(\$ 44,1)$. But when a noun is followed by no Genitive, this ending is abridged, either by substituting its vowel merely,
when prolonged, i. e. $\pi_{\bar{\tau}}$ (instead of $n_{-}$), or by exchanging $n=$ for the shorter toneless $5-$. The original fem. 5 - is searcely employed, except when the noun is followed by a Genitive, or by a pronoun-suffix. Apart from this predicament, (sce on the nature of $\mathrm{it}, \S 87,2, b . \S 89,4$ ), the designation of the fem. gender is effected in the following ways:
(a) Most frequently of all, by $\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{F}$ with the tone; e. g. סon horse, fem. חסָּ mare.
(b) By a toneless $--_{-}$, after a Guttural $-\because_{-}$, which remain unchanged before a Genitive. ${ }^{a}$ When the masc. ends in a vowel, the fem. is made simply by appending the $\pi$ - without its vowel. ${ }^{b}$
 the case of such feminines, shapes itself after the manner of Segholate nouns,
 sinfulness, (abstract). The vowel-changes brought about by these endings, are exhibited in $\S 52$. Feminines that have no distinctive sign of gender, are treated of in $\S 105,1.3 .4$.
Note 1. The fem. ending $\boldsymbol{n}-(\boldsymbol{n}-)$, is in general of much less frequent occurrence than the $\pi_{\tau}$, and for the most part occurs along with this. Somewhat more frequent is it in Participles and Infinitives; e. g. n.
 endings $5_{-}, r_{-}$, occur of course when a Gen. follows.
Note 2. Unesual fem. Endings. (a) 5-, [without a Guttural]; as
 so, frequently in Phenician names, and in those of the neighbouring tribes,

(b) $n_{\uparrow}$, almost exclusively poetical; e. g. צֶֻחָ, Ps. 60: 13; Ps. 16: 6; sometimes in prose, as $\quad$ गָחָּ
(c) $\aleph_{-}$, which is Aramaean orthography, written for $\pi_{-}$, specially in the

(d) Very unusual is $\pi_{-}$- fem., abridged from $\pi_{-}(\$ 27$, n. 4); as T T Is. 59: 5.
(e) $n_{-}$, without the tone, some forms seem to speak for. E. g.
 all these passages, however, the tone on the ultimate shonld be restored. The Punctators, who seem to have felt that there was something inappropriate in the proper fem. ending in these cases, sought to place it in the shade by a retraction of the accent. But their views are not binding on us. The intonation of the word employed; besides that לִ? and also occur in the masculine.

 here not a little of doubtful ground.*
 29: 6 Kethibh. So the verbal form $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{r}}$ b,
 Ex. 15: 16, et in al. loc. $\dagger$

Note 3. It is altogether incongrnous, when the vowel-ending $\pi-+$ is taken as the original fem. ending, and the consonant-ending 5 - is derived therefrom. The Ethiopic has the r-throughout; and in the Phenician, nearly all the endings are in $5-($ not $\mathbb{\aleph}$ or $\pi$ ), which, in the words transferred by the Greeks and Romans to their languages, sounds-at ; (see Ges. Monum. Phenic., pp. 439, 440). The old Arabic has the ancient abbreviated vowel-ending, alnost only in pause; in the new Arabic, the proportion is about the same as in Hebrew.

## § 80. <br> Original source of Nouns.

Nouns, in respect to their source, are either primitives, ${ }^{a}(\$ S 1)$, or derivates. The derivates are either verbal, i. e. from a verb; ;b nominal, i. e. from a noun. ${ }^{\text {c }}$

 תiteno place for the feet, footstool. The number of the verbals, however, is by far the greatest.
Note 1. The older grammarians assume, that the verb is exclusively the stem-word, and that all nouns are verbals. These they divide into, (a) Fornae nudae, i. e. those which have only three or two stem-letters. (b) Formae auctae, to which, either before or at the close, some accession, (either a
 letters by which this structure is effected, are noman which, when point-
 in conformity with these views have they treated this subject. This divi-

[^71]sion gave rise to the appellation Nomina hecmantica, by which the nomina aucta were often called.

According to $\$ 30,1$, above, the view here taken of roots and sterns makes the relation of nouns to verbs somewhat different; inasmuch as, according to this, many nouns spring directly from the ideal root. We abide here by what is more casy in the way of practice, for beginners in the study of the Hebrew.
Note 2. Composite names or nouns are on the whole but few in Hebrew, and are limited mostly (but not wholly) to proper names; as good-fornolhingness, 5unth-shade, [are examples of composition without any primary design of constituting a proper appellative]; while proper names are somewhat numerous, which exhibit amalgamation or composition; e. g.


§ 81.

## Nouns primitive.

1. The number of Primitives, in the ustal sense of this word, is very small, inasinuch as those nouns, which in most languages are commonly considered as stem-nouns, are here more usually traced back to verbal ideas.




Decidedly primitives are the cardinal numbers ( $\$ 95$ ); also the names of members of the human and animal body are to be ranked here, inasmuch as no congruous stem-verb can be found, by which they may be explained; e. g. hor horn, שיׁ breast, etc.
2. The form of the Primitives is that of the most simple verbals, like ${ }^{2}$ word, it makes no difference to what class it belongs.
E. g. the noun $=\underset{\sim}{c}$ พ̦ $f$ follows the analogy of the Verbals (No. 1, §83),
 father, and $\mathbf{x}$ mother, for they lave the form of verbals which come from

§ 82.
Of verbal nouns in general.

1. Verbal nouns attach themselves in Hebrew, as in Greek and Latin, in respect to form and meaning, to certain forms of
the verb, viz. the Participle and the Inf. mode; which, indeed,

 enemy. Still more frequently are certain other forms of the Inf. and Part. of the regular verb, (which, at present, however, occur but seldom or not at all in Hebrew, although common in the kindred languages), predominantly employed for the verbal noun.
 ( $\$ 45,2$ ), etc. Some are, (as the Arabic shows), properly intensive forms of the Participle.
2. In respect to the meaning, it lies in the very nature of the thing, that the nouns which attach themselves to the form of the Infinitive, usually designate action or condition itself, and other proximate ideas (e. g. the place of action) ; and hence they mostly designate abstracts. On the contrary, the participial nouns, for the most part, designate the subject of action or condition; and hence they are called concretes. Besides this it should be observed, that many of the particular forms of derivate nouns claim a peculiarity of meaning; although this cannot be said with equal truth of all these forms.
Note 1. Notwithstanding all these, it need not seem strange, (since it is common in all languages), that a noun, which according to its form should be regarded as abstract, has often a concrete meaning assigned to it; and so, vice versá. So we say, in English: acquaintance, for a person well known; Godhead, for God, etc. In Hebrew, well known; פִּחִ means simplicity and simpleton. On the the other hand, חַכָּ (lit. one sinning) means $\sin$; and thus is it frequently with the fem. of concrete words. (See § 83, 5. 6. 11.)
Note 2. For the sake of convenient inspection, we shall first treat of the Derivates of the regular verbs, $\S 83$; and then of the several classes of the irregular verbs, ( $\$ 84$ ).

$$
\text { § } 83 .
$$

## Derivate Nouns of the regular Verbs.*

## I. Participials of Kal.

 ( $\$ 49,2$ ); and yet not actually employed as a participial, except in verbs 4 華, ( $\S 71,4$ ). Most frequently it marks adjectives of quality ; e. g. . new, יָּׁר upright. The same form, also, sometimes occurs with an abstract meaning; see No. 12 below.

[^72] the most part, intransitives ( $\$ 43$ ) and adjectives of quality; e. g. 換 old, an old man,

 catcher; then more commonly as an adjective, although no Perf. with Hlıo-
 Tin honour, ロibu peace. No. 21, with the last radical doubled, must not be confounded with this.
 tives; as בnix enemy, puin suckling. Thence as a working instrument; as חרֵּ ח edge-tool, armour. A fem, with a collective meaning is properly the wandering, or a wandering company.
 usually a participle), in Hebrew rather as a noun, like the Greek verbals

 an anointed one. In intransitive verbs also with an active meaning; as small, $\begin{array}{ll}\text { ay } \\ \text { y } \\ \text { strong. Some words of this form designate a time or season; }\end{array}$ as קָּ harvest-time, ploughing-time; like the Greek verbals in tós, e. g. ${ }_{\alpha}^{\alpha} \mu \eta \tau o ́ s$, á $\varrho o t o ́ s, ~(p r o p e r l y ~ t h e ~ h a r v e s t e d, ~ t h e ~ b e i n g ~ p l o u g h e d) . ~ T h e ~ f e m i-~$ nines of this class have usually an abstract meaning, ( $\$ 105,2$ ); as a salvation, (literally the being saved).
 sive form of the participle. Hence, in Hebrew, it designates customary being or doing anything ; Maַ prone to strike or butt, (different from sin sinning), בּקָּ thief, etc. Hence oftentimes this form denotes business, employment; e. g. fem. a female sinner and sin; 5n burning fever; with Guttural as nean ring. Intensive forms, also, are the following: viz.

 from mere Intransitives.
 born.
(9) ${ }^{2}$ denotes very strong intensity; oftentimes it denotes an excess of anything, so as to hecome a blemish or an offence; e. g. humpbacked,
 fem., the abstract meaning is the usual one; as nbw foolishness.

## II. Nouns after the manner of the Inf. Kal.*



[^73]the simplest forms of this kind, the first and last of which forms are common to the Inf. of verbs, $(\$ 45,2)$. As forms of nouns, they are rare; e. g. า man, ornament, pins laughter. Far more frequent, and in their place, are employed the closely allied forms:

 with the character-vowel in the first syllable, and the helping [assumed] vowel in the second. When the second or third stem-letter is a Guttural, the helping vowel is Pattah; as sted, חצ M eternity, work. Examples of the fem. of these forms are: dom.

Both masculines and feminines have properly and predominantly an abstract meaning; but still the concrete one is not unfrequent here, specially of the first or form; e. g. . fellow, ondary, and flows out of the abstract, (as in andupidity, youthfulness); in part, the form of the word is derived, by abbreviation, from a longer concrete word, as king, צֶּ צֶּ servant, out of participial words, which mean, the reigning one, the serving one, etc.* In general, however, the meaning of these forms is manifold; e. g. they are used to designate instruments, tools, as $ニ$ กn sword, $\begin{gathered}\text { nn pointed instrument, style ; and also with a pas- }\end{gathered}$

 sphere of meaning; e. g.
(12) p like No 1, fem. e. g. ברָ famine,
 intoxicating drink, צָּבָ the grape.


 as
 in with the fem. of No. 5 above.
 forms are This form designates not only action, but specially the place of action; as


[^74](15)


An abridged form of $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{-}$- is $4-$, also written $i$, which is found in proper names; as שִּ
 town of Shitoh, and now Silun).
(16) With the fem. ending - - ; as folly, חọ healing. In Aramaean this is the common Inf. ending in the derived Conjugations, (comp. Nn. 28 below). This form is frequent only in the later hooks of the Old Test. As a form of like meaning, $\mathrm{m}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ - occurs sometimes in the earlier books; e. g. שישׁאריח. (Comp. the Denominatives in §85, 6.)

## III. Participials of the derived Conjugations.


 knife.

 ular arljectives of colour; as No. 21 is merely a modification of No. 3.
(23)
 misellus, Germ. Gesinde, Gesindel), 50pon the rabble-mob, (here with a pass. form, from =ioni).

## IV. Infinitives of derived Conjugations.

(24) From Niphal; as antang combats.
(25) From Piel ; $\gamma$, בֵ immutable.
(26) Arabic); e. g. ニּלּ T- 7 ? mantle.
 with Qamets immutable.
(29) From Hithpael; דחּ catalogue.
(30) From Poel; as nol hilly. Perhaps also, (31) As ?


(34) Mipmpa opening, Inf. to No. 23.

(36) Quadriliterals ; as $\begin{gathered}\text { ante } \\ \text { op locust. }\end{gathered}$

## § 84. <br> Derivates from the irregular Verbs．

The structure of these is entirely analogous to that of deri－ vates from the regular verb；and much is differently modified， only by reason of the peculiar structure of these stems．We shall therefore follow the order of the preceding forms，and no－ tice only such methods of formation as are indicative of being influenced by the irregularities of the stems．

## I．Verbs Pe Nun．

To the Inf．of Kal the following forms are atached：14． overthrov．To the Inf，of Hiphil ：28．הַהָּה Kescue．The noun（knowl－ edge）comes from

## II．Verbs צ゙タ．

 monosyllabic derivates have a $(-)$ ，so as to make a sharp sound ；as 3 픈 lowly，בー much，fem． Mrace，pin statute，fem．







## III．From Verbs 情 and 唶．

The participial forms are regular．To the Infinitives belong，10．끈，fem．


 South．

## IV．Verbs

Participials are，1． 7 ，foreign．2．$\ddagger$ foreigner，winness，testinony． 3．בís good，בitur goodness．Infinitives；11．The Segholate forms of dif－




[^75]
## V. Verbs


 burnt-offering. 5. בָּ wavering, pure, poor.-Infinitives; 11. The Segholates of different forms, not many of which retain their final $ה-$, like
 ly with the casting away of the $n-$; e. g. רִ (for $n$ ) ; or, in case of an original Yodh or Vav [medial], this is usually turned into a vowel, i. e. it quiesces in an appropriate vowel, (see what is said on ${ }^{n}$, § $74 . \mathrm{n} .3$ ); as fruit, חָּ sickness, waste. Sometimes, (although but seldom), the middle radical of masc. gender, in such a case, remains a consonant; as (devay) ; but the fem. always developes the consonant here; as


 possession,


## VI. Doubly irregular Verbs.

We adduce only a few examples, which may be of some difficulty to learners, as to finding the three stem-letters.

1. From 惓 and


 (from (עָָ for $\min _{\text {, }}$, (from

Moreover, in consequence of the contraction of $\mathfrak{y}, 7, \pi$, the stem is of-

 -

## § 85.

## Denominative Nouns.

1. To these belong all nouns which are immediately derived from other nouns, whether those others are primitives or verbals.

2. Most of the forms of the denominatives are found in the verbals, and they appear to be borrowed from them, or to have imitated them; for the denominatives appear to be of later origin in the Hebrew than the verbals. E. g. one observed, that the verbals with 2 prosthetic ( $\$ 83$. No. 14) were employed to
designate the pluce of action, and then put $\Rightarrow$ before nouns intended to designate the place where anything is or is done, (No. 3 below). In Greek and German the verbals and denominatives are altogether analogous.

The principal forms are as follows: (1) Like the Part. Kal, (No. 4 of
 M herd; a vine-dresser, from vineyard.
 from מֶּ, salt, sea. - Both Nos. 1 and 2 exhibit forms which indicate ordinary occupation or employment; like the Greek nouns in $-\tau \eta \varsigma-\tau \varepsilon \dot{\prime} \varsigma$, e. g.

(3) With prosthetic $घ$, which indicates the place where anything is done,




 coiled serpent, from הִ?

The endings $7^{4-}, 7^{7-}$, also form diminutives, (like the Syriac $7^{7-}$ ); as


(5) To the denominative the ending $\uparrow$ - is peculiar ; for it is appended to the noun in order to convert it into an adjective. Specially is this applied, as a formative of this nature, to the names of numbers, persons, and countries, in order to make of them ordinals, gentile appellations, and patronymics.

 the stem-noun is a composite one, it is usually separated into two words, as Mannenan a Benjamite, from (see respecing the article in such cases,
 is sometimes employed, (as in Aramaean); e. g. בִּירל crafty. Sometimes in proper names; as in Haggai (the prophet). (b) The $(\pi-)$ is sometimes put for (־-); as לְבְּ , prob. milky, the storax-tree.
(6) With the endings $\pi^{-}$-, $\pi^{-}$-, which are appended to concretes, and
 dom, from
 16 above).
$\S 86$.
Of the Plural.

1. The plural is marked in the masculine, by the ending $=\div$ -
 written defective, as

The endings of the noun singular occasion some small diversity here. If the sing. ends with ( ${ }^{-}$), then the full plur. ending (comprising this Yodh) would, if written plenè, he $=\boxed{-}$ - (iy-yim) ; e. g. na゙ッ a Hebrew, full plur.

 receive the plur. appendage; as $\pi$ пֶ, plur.
This ending $(-i m)$ is predominant in the Phenician also; e. g. Ests Sidonians. The Aramaean has -in; the Arabic -un (Nom.) and -in in the oblique cases; the Aethiopic -an. It is, in fine, identical with the verbal plur. ending $7^{7}$-.

## Unusual forms of the Plural.

(a) $i^{-}$- , as in Chaldee and Syriac ; found alnost exclusively in the later
 12: 13; written defectively in "ß. islands, Ezek. 20: 18. Comp. Judg. 5: 10. Job 15: 13. 24: 22. 31: 10. Lam. 1: 4, et al.


 14. Ps. 144: 2). This ending is, in several places, doubted by many; see 2 Sam. 23: 8, and comp. 1 Chron. 11: 11. 1 Sam. 20: 38, Kethibh; sce also Gesen. Lehrgeb. d. Heb. Sprache, s. 5.24 ff . More doubtful is also,
(c) ${ }^{\circ}$, (like the const. state in the Syriac); and under this rubric are reck-
 dows, Jer. 22: 14. Perhaps the last is Dual, ( $\$ 86 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{n} .1$ ). Possibly may mean my princes, and so the $n$ - is a plur. suff.; and $n$ - in may be a formative aflix. Moreover , Is. 20: 4 , is in the const. state. But , the mighty One, probably = 3: 17, the ( 9 ) belongs to the stem, since it comes from ~ צֲּ (my lord), the (7) was originally a suffix; § 120, n. 4.
2. The phur. fem. is marked by the ending $\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{4}-}$, which comes in place of the fem. sing. ending, $\Gamma_{-}, \Gamma_{-}, n_{-}$; and where these are wanting, then $r^{-}$is simply annexed, $(\$ 79,2)$; for the latter, an example is $\bar{\sim}$, plur.


The feminines in $5^{n-}$ - form the plural in $\mathrm{rin}^{4}-$; and those in $5^{4}$
 then the basis of these plurals must after all be the sing. forms n- and $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{F}$ -

It comes from a disregard to the original source of the ending n:- and תー, , when the plur. ending $\mathrm{D}^{-}$- is attached to such words; e. g.

 in the manner of the Syriac.
N. B. This ending (-öth) stands for -ath, (for so it is in Arab., Ethiop., and Chaldee, see on the obscuration of $\hat{d}$ into $\hat{\theta}, \S 9,10,2)$, and $-\hat{a} t h$ is properly nothing more than the extension and strengthening of the sing. fem. ending -ăth, $(\$ 79,2)$. Intensity should characterize the plural. But this ending, when widely employed, came naturally to be attached, even to those words which did not end in 5 -:
In what manner the (mutable) vowels of a noun are affected by the plu-ral-ending, is shown by $\$ 91 . \S 93$.
3. Words of the common gender have often both a masc. and a fem. termination in the plural ; and both these forms may
 תixize

In some cases, the two plurals are used in a somewhat diverse sense; so that the usus loquendi must be particularly watched here. It is the case with a considerable number of nouns in Hehrew, that they form plurals of both kinds. In such cases, the gender of the singular belongs to both forms; e. g.
 3: 3.

Sometimes the two forms are separated by special usage ; e. g. in common prosaic use, we have days, and and nime and nixut. Specially is this the case with the names of the members of the human body; for the dual of these names denotes the living members of the body, while the plural denotes merely objects which imitate or are like them, i. e. things which consist of lifeless matter; e. g. ano hands, תוֹת nixuty springs.
4. A considerable number of masculines form their plural in Mi-; and many feminines form theirs in $\mathbf{~ - r}$-. Yet, in the general, the gender of the singular passes into the plural unaltered, [whatever may be its form].
 both fem.; بִּ
5. A fixed and entire separation of the two genders is found principally in adjectives and participles.
 nouns from the same root，which follow，in their meaning，the natural gen－
 an＝kings，niziv queens．

Note 1．In a few cases，to the plur．ending $\boldsymbol{r i}$－is added，by usage，a second plur．ending $\mathrm{E}_{-}$－，（which，before the Gen．，becomes ${ }^{-}$－，comp．$\$ 87$ ，


 of marking the plural，lies also in the connection of suffixes with the plural ending $\boldsymbol{r l}$－ ；（see § 89,3 ）．

Note 2．Some nouns are used only in the plaral；e．g．anneme（in Ethiop，the sing．is met）；and some of these plural forms have the meaning
 also employed for the expression of the plural，when it is needed；e．g．踊faces，Ezek．1： 6.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { §86 b. } \\
\text { Of the Dual. }
\end{gathered}
$$

1．The $D_{\text {ual }}$ is a modification of the plural．It is found only in a few nouns，and belongs not to adjectives，verbs，or pronouns．It has no distinction of gender；and it is formed by adding $\because \div$－to the singular．

 supposititious vowel is dropped，and the $\pi$ remains；e．g．תְֶּ，dual ロック・

It should be also noted，that the shortening of the vowels in the clual，is somewhat more extensive than in the plural，because of its length．



Note 1．Unusual forms of the Dual，which belong mostly to proper


 ＝－，（dropping the＝）；as Jer．22： 14.
 and so $=\mathfrak{T M n}$（also $=$－- ）．The first two are plurals from obsolete sin－


Thes. p. 629); comp. the shorter form -
2. The use of the Dual in Hebrew, (besides the numeral use for $2,12,200$, etc., $§ 95$ ), is limited principally to those objects which are naturally double, or which by nature or art are pairs.

 two (successive) years ; Exprop two ells. In the first case (objects naturally double), the Dual is also employed for the plural; as aix wings, Is. 6: 2. So in Ezek. 7: 17, $\mathfrak{E}$, in the way of intensity, two is expressed along with the dual number, Amos 3: 12. Judg. 16: 28. (See further, on the Dual, § 86,$3 ; 4$, notes).

Remarks. It is not to be doubted, that the Hebrews, at an earlier period, used the Dual in a more comprehensive and freer manner, and that the limitations and remission of it belong to a development of the language which is of the later stamp. The written language of the Arabic forms the Dual in nouns, pronouns, and verbs (with participles), about to a like extent with the Greek and Sanscrit. But in the new Arabic it disappears in all but the noun. The Syriac has it only in some two forms, like the Roman in duo, ambo. So it is dropped in the recent Hindoo languages, [and in Romaic]. For the Dual in German, see Grimm's Germ. Gramm. I. s. 814. 2 Ausg.

## § 87. <br> The Genitive and Construct State.

1. The Hebrew language does not exhibit, at present, any living active use of case-endings.* It does not mark externally the relation of cases in a noun either as being of the Nom., Accus., or Gen.; but designates the oblique cases either by prepositions, or, in case of the Gen., by a close union in position, and a subordination to the noun which takes the lead. The noun which is put for a Gen., undergoes no change in itself; but occasions one in the preceding noun which stands connected with it. Inasmuch as both words are necessary to complete the idea, they are so drawn together that the first shortens its rovels, and in part its consonants, when this can be done, in order that the voice may hasten on to the principal tone, which is upon the second word. $\dagger$

[^76]E. g. out of such connection the word of God, (quasi Word-God, the reverse of our God's word) ; so hand,
 of the first word are abridged).

The changes in question, then, have respect to the first word in such a comnection; and this word, subject to these changes, is said to be in the Construct State. A noun not followed by a Gen., is said to be in the Absolute State.
N. B. Whether the two words are connected or not by a Maqqeph ( $\$ 16$, 1), makes no difference as to the vowel changes. That is an affair connected merely with accentuation. On the more extended use of the construct state, § 113. § 114.
2. Particulars respecting the vowel changes which are produced by the construct state, are presented in the Paradigms connected with $\$ 90-92$. The endings of the noun in the const. state are, in part, affected so as to give to the word a peculiar form: viz.

 eyes, צעיבֵי דָאִים the eyes of the man.
(b) The fem. ending $\pi_{-}^{-}$, (the usual ending of the absolute fem. noun),

 this remains unchanged, ( $(79,1, \mathrm{n} .1)$.
 termination, the ending ( $n-$ ), when in the const. state, (see § 74, 1. n.); as הx่̣า, const.
 const. $\times$ n. -On the ending ( ${ }^{(1)}$ ) and ("-) in the const. state, see § 88.

Remarks. The liquid a falls away here, just as the Latin final $m$ fell away before a vowel, in common parlance, and in poetry; Quinctil. Instt. Orat. IX. 4, §40. In the same manner the final $n$ falls away in Arabic and Aramaean, and usually in the plur. ending $j^{n-}$ - of the verb, ( $\$ 44,1$. § 47 , n. 4). The vowel letter $i$ which then remains, after $E$ is dropped, takes an $a$ to strengthen itself, and from this $a$ and $i$ combined arises the ending ( $-\frac{-}{-}$ ); see in $\$ 7,1$ and $\$ 9,6$. Instead of this ( $-\ldots$ ), the Syrians have ( $\curvearrowleft$ ) ; and some trace of this is found in the connection of the suffices with the plur. noun, ( $\$ 89,2$ ). Here probably belongs the controverted form, Is. 20: 4. (Some also find it in Judg. 5: 15.) That the (-.) const, of the Dual comes from ( - ), is plain of itself.

## § 88. <br> Remains of ancient Case-endings.

## 

1. As the Arabic distinguishes three cases by endings, so are there traces of three endings of the Heb. noun, which correspond in sound with those Arabic ones, but have mostly lost their significance, and appear now only as the fallen ruins of an organism once fuller and more animated, since the language, as we have it in books, no longer exhibits any separation of cases by means of word-endings.
The Arabic endings are $-u$ for the Nom., $-i$ for the Gen., and $-a$ for the Acc., (corresponding to the three leading classes of the vowels). In new Arabic, these endings have disappeared, even to that of the Acc., except that now and then this last is heard in the adverbial Acc. The Ethiopic has saved only the - $\alpha$, and this it employs in the whole domain of the Acc., and also (in its lack of case-distinctions) as the ending of a noun in the const. state followed by the Genitive.
2. Most evident of all is the Acc. relation in the toncless ending ( $\Pi_{\overline{-}}$ ), which is appended to a noun as follows:
(a) Most frequently to show direction or motion towards anything; (see Synt., 116, 1); e. g. אַג toward Assyria; ; ָָּקָּ toward Babylon; toward the earth. With the article:


 on the ultimate).
(b) Somewhat weaker is the meaning of $\left(\Pi_{-}\right)$, when, as at times is the case, it points only in a general way to the place, where any particular thing is, or is found; e. g. M Hab. 3: 11; also in there, Jer. 18: 2, (oftener thither).
(c) Still weaker is the meaning, when moreover a preposition is prefixed to such a form ; तּ

The local relation of this ending is the reigning one, ( $-\Pi_{r}$ local); yet in a few cases, it refers to time; e. g. (perhaps) ה্ָn ;
 absit! As Acc. of object, (yet approaching very near to the local relation), is

Remary. Inasmuch as this ending $\left(\Pi_{-}\right)$is normally toneless, most words,
as the examples above show, do not change their vowels on account of it. But where this is a helping vowel in a Segholate form, this falls away and becomes Sheva, as Dual occurs, the same thing takes place; e. g. חַּשָּne (like the Dual in its
 Nob, 1 Sam. 21: 2, comp. Ezek. 25: 13.
3. Less frequent, and almost only in poetry, do we find the other two endings, which, with the Acc. ending just noticed, corresponded to the Arabic case-endings, viz. ("-) for the Gen., and - (sometimes ${ }^{\text {- }}$ in proper names), for the Nominative. But language does not recognize, at present, any regular indication of case-relations by means of these, but regards them rather as Arabisms, which, in poctry and solemn discourse, and in composite proper names, have descended from ancient times. These endings are employed only in cases of the closest connection of noun to noun, i. e. in the const. state.*
(a) The ending (--) is not very unusual in the const. state, and commonly has the tone. E. g.


 110: 4.-Frequently when a preposition is prefixed to the second word,
 If:큰 he who bindeth to the vine, Gen. 49: 11, comp. Is. 22: 16. Mic. 7: 14. Ps. 110:4. 113:5,9, etc. Several of the particles take the same ( ${ }^{-}-$), thus showing, that in effect they are nouns in the const. state; e. g. זֶּלָּ besides, from, בִּבְ not. Also in composite proper names; as Melchizedek;

(b) The ending ( ${ }^{-}$) is much rarer; in prose it is found only in the Pentateuch, and there in solemn speech, as Gen. 1:24, beast of the earth, and the same form repeated from this passage, in Ps. 50: 10. 79: 2.

 the soul of the slothful, Prov. 13: 4.

The shortening of the vowels which these endings bring about, may be seen from the examples above. The Pattah of the fem. ending ( $\Omega_{-}$) becomes either a Sheva, or a Qamets.

[^77]Inasmuch as these endings, - and in $^{-}$, appear to have been given up as marking the relation of case, so we cannot now regard them with certainty as case-endings; but still, it is quite probable, that they were once so in the living language, as well as ( $\mathrm{i}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ) under No. 2. In particular are we supported in this view by the Arabic, which once had the same endings, and afterwards lost them, like to the Hebrew. In Latin, moreover, we find a use of the Casus localis (locative case) which has been arrested, as in proper names, in ruri, domi, etc. In the new Persian plural endings -în and -há, are contained old case-endings, which however, as such, have no living energy at present; not to mention the Roman and German languages.Even in instances where the old Arabic employed case-endings, which have become incorporated, in a manner, with the stem-word itself, e. g. in אבָא , אבִּ , אבּ (const. state of father), the new Arabic employs all these, but without designating a difference of cases by them. In accordance with this, the Heb. const. state, אֲחִּ , אַבְ, is properly a Gen. ending. In Chaldee
 are to be regarded as Nom. endings ; so that both forms,


$$
\text { § } 89
$$

## The Noun with Pronoun Suffixes.

As to the connection of the noun with personal pronouns, (which in such a connection represent a Gen. case, ( $\$ 33,2$. b), two things, (as in case of the verb, $\S 56$, seq.), require our attention; (1) The form of the suffix itself. (2) The change in the noun by reason of it. The latter is exhibited in the Paradigms of the flexion of nouns ( $\$ 90$ seq.) ; here, therefore, we have to treat principally of the first. A synopsis of them will be found in Par. A, at the close of this work. We shall first consider in what manner the suffixes are attached to nouns in the Singular ; and then, in the Plural and Dual.

1. The Suffixes to the Singular are as follows:

Sing. 1. c. $\stackrel{-}{-}$ mine.



Plur. 1. c. 和, 誛 our.



Note 1．The variety in forms here is narrower than that in the case of the verbs．The manner of appending the suffixes is as follows：
（a）The forms without a union－vowel are attached to nouns that end in a
 the noun－endings，（ $\Pi_{\tau}$ and $\pi_{-}, \S 87,2$ ），are not included here．
（b）The forms with union－vowels，$(\$ 57,3$ ．b），are appended to nouns which end in a consonant；which include the great mass．In respect to the union－vowel here，the $\mathfrak{A}$ sound is predominant，and is attached to the
 with $E$ sounds are limited almost entirely to nouns that end in $\pi-$ ；as



Note 2．Unusual forms．These are，（a）The second pers．masc．sing．，
 กー－Nahum 2：14，（several Mss．$\pi_{-}-$，prob．$\pi_{-}$equivalent to ${ }^{-}$－）．（b）The
 8．13：3．35： 21 ；ixp， 2 K．19：23，but in Is． $37: 24$ ，4叉？；in on，Gen．49： 11 （Qeri i）．
 （d）Second person，בָָּ－，Ezek．23：48，49．（e）Third masc．，Е꾸－， 2 Sam．23：
 7：37； Moreover ${ }_{i}$－is rare，Is．3： 17 ；most commonly in the form $i_{-}$．

2．When the Suffixes are added to the plur．masc．in $\mathbf{D}^{-}$－， and the dual in $\mathrm{Er}-$ ，that is，to the const．state of these which ends in $\stackrel{-}{-}(\$ 97,2)$ ，this ending combines with the suffixes， and thence arise some new vowels，as follows：

## Suffixes of Nouns plural．

Sing．1．$c . "=$ mine．

Plur．1．c． $\mathfrak{n} \because$ our．

2．$\left\{\begin{array}{l}m .2 \text { ロッグー } \\ f . \\ f .\end{array}\right\}$ your．


In most of these forms，the ending of the plur．construct remains unchang－





Note 1. The Yodh, which distinguishes these suffixes, is, in words occurring bere and there, omitted in the writing, (written defectivè); e. g.
 ufter their kinds, Gen. 1: 21. Most frequent is this with the suff. of the third pers. masc. sing., where ${ }^{-}$- frequently occurs, which the Qeri amends


Note 2. The unusual forms here are : Sing., second pers. fem. $7-\ldots$, Ecc. 10: 17; 4



Note 3. In respect to $\uparrow$-., see $\$ 101,2$ note.
3. That the Yodh ( ${ }^{\natural}$ ) in these suffixes of the noun plural, actually belongs to the ending of the masc. plural in the const. state, is clear and beyond a doubt. But the consciousness of this in speaking the living language seems to have been so worn away, that a striking peculiarity, (in a sense-incorrectness), of speech arose, viz., that the suffix forms, including the $\because$ which belonged in reality to the endings of the masc. plur. nouns, were appended in like manner to the feminine forms of the plural in ni-.
 the masc. plural); so that in fact there is here a double designation of the plural fem. (In $\S 86,5 . n .1$, may be seen parallels with this; and in $\S 79$, 2. n. 2. $f$, is a double ending of fem. singular.) Such is the rule; [i. e. the suffixes of the masc. and fem. plural are the same, including also the Yodh which precedes them]. But there are occasional exceptions to this ; in which case the pure suffix, (as in No 1. above), is attached directly to the

 more common than
4. To exhibit clearly these views of the subject, we subjoin a Table or Paradigm of the Suffixes in connection with nouns of both genders and numbers. For this purpose a word has been chosen, the stem-letters of which do not change. It will be seen, that for the fem. ending ( $\pi_{-}$), that of $\left(\Omega_{-}\right)$, a construct ending, is adopted before suffixes; which last ending, however, prolongs the Puttah into Qamets, in all cases where the Pattah would come to stand in an open syllable, (comp. §87, 2. b). The ( $\Omega_{-}$) remains before q , $\boldsymbol{T}$, because it continues here to be in a closed syllable.

Singular．


Plural．

Masc．
ロיロּ horses．
Sing．1．c．${ }^{2}$ my horses．
2．$\left\{\begin{array}{l}m . \\ f .\end{array}\right.$ 鸟





Fem．
תiono mares．
＂నַ่า my mares．
7．
－on ony on of
Onçion his－
M－Tion her－
－our－
םכֵּ
T－nion your－$f$ ．
ETックৃive their－


## § 90.

## Vowel－changes in the Noun．

1．These changes are brought about，（a）By a following Genitive．（b）By appending personal pronouns．（c）By the plural and dual endings ；and these may be followed by a Gen－ itive，and also by suffixes．

2．By these means the tone is shifted more or less，and sometimes upon the suffix which is appended．Three cases of this nature may be distinguished．
（a）When the tone advances one syllable or place，which is the case when most of the suffixes of the noun singular are appended；e．g．${ }^{7}$ ；；₹－， $7-$ ；
 ral and dual endings produce the same effect；e．g．$\square^{\square}$ dual masc．nouns，the penult vowel（if mutable）falls away and becomes Sheva； in the other nouns，there is a variety of changes，which must be learned



The light suffixes＊of the plural produce the same effect as those of the


（b）When the tone goes forward two places，as when the grave suffixes of the Plural are added，viz． ultimate and penult vowels（if mutable）are changed；e．g．
 words of the people．

The Segholate forms，with penult tone，suffer less change by a suffix，than
 the leading vowel under the first stem－letter，while the plur．（שְלָּים）throws the vowel forward under the second stem－letter．（See $\$ 91,6$ ．）
（c）When the pronoun appended begins with a consonant which has no union－vowel，and which makes a syllable by itself，（viz．the suffixes ${ }^{\eta}-$ ； ロファ－，， $\left.\eta_{\tau}\right)$ ，the changes follow the nature of the word appended．The $\eta^{-}$is a light

[^78] others are grave suflixes，and shorten the word as much as may be；e．g．


3．The vowel－changes in the feminines（ $\$ 96$ ）are not so considerable as in the masculines，since，in consequence of their formation out of the inasculines，$(\$ 9 \cdot)$ ，they bave already been subjected to change．

These sowel－changes，and the internal declension of nouns，are grounded on the general principles developed in $\S 23$ seq．above．But those princi－ ples are not adequate to the explanation of all the phenomena．Many of the changes rest upon the peculiar structure of certain forms of nouns，of which some accomnt has been given in $\$ 83-55$ ．Finally，all the changes in question respect almost entirely the ultimate and penult syllables of words． The antepenult very rarely has a mutable vowel ；（comp．in §27）．

N．B．A striking difference hetween shortening vowels in the verb and in the noun，is this，viz．，that in the verb，where of two mutable vowels one of them is shortened，that one is the second，e．g．． while in nouns just the reverse of this takes place，viz．，the first vowel is changed，e．g．

Changes of the consonants in nouns occur very rarely，and ouly in those of form IX．in the Paradigm．

We subjoin Paradigms of the flexion，and changes from other causes，of the forms of nouns，with explanatory remarks，in the following order，viz．（1）The Paradigm of Nouns masculine，$\oint$ 91．（2）The vowel changes in the formation of Feminines， 92. （3）Paradigm of Nouns feminine，$\S 93$.
§ 91.

## Paradigm of Masculines．

Noms masculine，in respect to their vowel－changes，may be reduced to nine Classes；which are exhibited in the following table，and to this explana－ tions are suljoined．Here we premise only two remarks of a general nature．
（a）That all feminine nouns，with a masc．form in the singu－ lar，（ $\$ 10^{-}$），1．3），are declined in the same way as masculines， with the exception，that they usually（not alway：）form their plur．by suffixing ；e．g．ニ－n fem．，plur．ri＝n，const．plur． ア゙コロー．The suffixes demand the more thorough kind of short－ ened forms in these cases．See Par．of Fem．，§ 93.
（b）That in the plural，the so－called light suffixes are attached to the absolute state，while the grave ones are joined with the const．state；as the Paradigm will show．

of Nouns masculine.

 (but not $2 \rightarrow$ ). All the other suffixes throughout are named light; [a merely convenient technical expression].

## Explanations.

1. Par. I. has no vowel-changes in its stem-letters, and is presented here merely for the convenience of comparison. All nouns with vowels immutable belong here. ( $\$ 25$.)
E. g. (see $\S 25,1$ ), such as
 bal nouns like those in § 83 , Nos. 6. 7. 8, 13. 26. 27.
2. Par. II. comprises all nouns which have a mutable Qamets in the last syllable, whether monosyllabic or having another previous but immutable vowel.
 fix (monosyllabic), other short vowels are employed, in such a connection, to
 n. 2. 3.
N. B. Those noums which have a final ( - ) immutable, of course do not be-



3. Par. III. comprises those nouns, whose final vowel is immutable, while the penult has a mutable $(-)$ or $(-),(\S 26,3)$.

 into one in the construct.
N. B. There are also nouns of the same appearance, whose $(-)$ is immutable; e. g. שָׁריץ (for
 table and immutable ( - ); e. g. צivit , see Lex.
4. Par. IV. presents forms which are very frequent, viz. those which have Qamets mutable in the ultimate and penult syllables; one or both of which fall away, as the tone is removed one or two places, (comp. §90, 2).

Of the two examples ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ ) in the Par. the latter has a Guttural for its first letter, which has a special influence on the form of the const. plural.


The same analogy is followed by nouns with mutable $(-)$ in the last, and $(-)$ in the penult, syllable of the form ${ }^{2} \times{ }_{\mathrm{T}}^{2}$.
 this kind take, in the const. state of the sing. number, a Segholate form;


 ble ; (see § 83, No. 6).
5. The structure of Par. V. can be considered only as a variety of the preceding. The ( - ) of the second syllable here, is subject to the same changes as the $(-)$ there, excepting that in the const. sing. $\mathbb{T}$ ? stands for the normal

A few nouns here, (as in Par. IV.), have a Segholate form in the const.
 the normal $\overline{5}-\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{n}$ ). Seldom (yet sometimes) both forms roexist in
 const. לาบ and לาร.

Rare exceptions are forms like before Maqqeph. Examples of the first kind, moreover, are $\underset{\sim}{7} \boldsymbol{F}$, $i=$ בֵּ

Note. Some nouns of this form hold fast their ( - ) in the const. plural; e. g.
6. Par. VI. comprises the large class of the so-called Segolate Forms, ( $\$ 93$, No. 11). The structure of these has this peculiarity, viz. that before suffixes, and in the const. state of the Plural and Dual, they appear in their original monosyliabic state. In the Plur. absolute, however, they are anomalously formed, inasmuch as they take $(-)$ under the middle radical, and


In gencral these forms eonstitute three classes, viz. (1) Those with $A$ in the first syllable. (2) With $E$. (3) With $O$. The derivates of the regular verb are sounded as a.b.c. in the Paradigm. 'I'hose with a Guttural in the last syllable, like d.e. f. Under $g . h$. are examples of derivates from stems 4 and Under $i$. is a derivate of ${ }^{\text {iz. }}$ (Comp. §84, IV, No. 11. V, No. 11.) Particulars follow:
(1) In the form (for 7 需 appended, as ed); in like manuer with $n-\operatorname{local}(\$ 88,1)$, as in $\boldsymbol{n}$. names like with the article, $\underset{\sim}{\gamma} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$; original monosyllabic form shows itself in $\boldsymbol{x}^{2} \boldsymbol{n}$. Finally, the Seghol in these

 a Guttural concurs, but frequent also without one.

It appears, moreover, that there are a number of nouns, apparently of this class, which seem either to have $\check{\imath}$ for their ground-vowel, or else to have shortened the $a$ into $\check{\imath}(\S 27$, n. 3 ), or perhaps to vacillate toward the
 so both methods; e. g. ריח Mos. 1: 2, and Is. 5\%: 4.

When the third stem-letter is a Guttural, in such forms as -bir, Pattah
 is a Guttural, then the form hecomes like (see in Par. $d$.), , 2na ; and rarely do these forms assume the ustual Seghol in them, like $\begin{gathered}\text { b } \\ \text { b, so gene- }\end{gathered}$ ral is the union of ( - ) with Gutturals. In such a case, the normal suffix form, (like , - מַּ)
(2) The forms (lett. b. e.) take for their first vowel, when the first letter is a Guttural, a $(-)$ instead of their $(-)$, both in the suff. state sing., and in the plur. const.; e. g. חֵقְ original shape of this class of words. The local $\pi_{-}^{-}$appended does not
 of the form in general are: :
(3) The form (lett. c.) sometimes takes ( - ) in its first syllable, when in the suffix-state, as 3 , 4 , Ps. 150: 2; but this is not frequent.Moreover, such a form as a may be found in words without Guturals;


 1 Sam. 28: 14. Comp. §62, n. 4.

In the plural absolute usage varies. Most nouns of this form, with or without a Guttural, take ( - ) under the first radical, e. g. . but many employ (-) in the same position; as



 (See §9, n. 2). The word (for local, does not affect the Hholem; e. g. Minini.
(4) After the same analogy are declined those kindred forms, whose only full vowel is between the last two radicals, ( $(83$, No. 10). E. g. שֶּ
 Inf., without a Daghesh lene in the third radical-differing from the usage

(5) The derivates from the stems ${ }^{4 \prime *}$ and $n$, are the only ones which
change their form in the const. state, inasmuch as they contract the diphthongal $a v$ and $a y$, into $\hat{o}$ and $\hat{\epsilon},\left(\$ 24,2 . b\right.$. and note $\left.{ }^{*}\right)$; e. g. $\min$ mauth, contracted rin; and so mand bayth, baith, The T- Tocal does
 $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{- 3}$ ). Some nouns of this species, which contract in the sing., in the
 7
(6) The Segholates of the stem ${ }^{3}$ ל are properly of three kinds, viz. with
 pause) are developed, as
 these nouns, in the plural, take an $\mathfrak{x}$ in the room of the (a) stem-letter, (see

7. Par. VII. comprises the nouns with mutable $(-)$ in their last syllable; and these may be either monosyllabic, or have a preceding immutable vowel. Here belongs all the Pres. Parti-
 and Hitlpael, the form $3 \approx$ ? (adjective or noun, see $\$ \$ 3$, No. 9), and several other words.
 here, in the const. state, from the normal form in the Paradigm. (a) Some
 when Gutturals are present, as
 over, several nouns, (not monosyllabic like in the Par.), preserve the (-) of the final syllable; e. g. .
8. Par. VIII, comprises all words together, which double the last radical, when any formative accession is received. By, this doubling, the last syllable is sharpened, and the rowel of the same becomes short, $(\$ 27,1)$. As to the syllables which precede, they are treated according to general principles and the nature of the case.
 long words of nearly all the other forms; so that one cannot decide from the appearance of a word in the sing. absolute, whether it belongs here or not. He minst reason from the etymology, or from the development of the word.

According to etymology, there helong to this class, (a) All derivates of
 this analogy, as $\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathrm{T}}$ sea, mountain, $\mathfrak{M}$, fire. (b) Contracts, which suppress a

 patronymics and gentilicia, as ? ? ? ? although more abridged forms


 Forms like these, in other cases, form a plural without the reception of a Daghesh forte; and the words above make only an exception to a general principle. See in the Lex.

Before suffixes whose union-vowel is only ( - ), viz. such as $7_{-}$, $\mathrm{E}_{-}-$, the Daghesh forte may be omitted; the vowel, however, is commonly the same,


Those words which have ( - ) in the main syllable, either retain this, or

9. Par. IX. comprises the derivates of the stem $\because 2,(\delta 84, \tilde{\square})$, which end in $\pi_{-}$; e. g. רצֵה , חֵּ syllable in this class of words, is treated according to the principles already laid down, and only the final $n-$ comes under consideration here. This is treated in much the same manner as in Verbs n. $^{2}$.

Inasmuch as the ending $n-$ here stands in the room of ${ }^{n}$ - , so this original form returns, whenever suffixes are attached. In consequence of this, the suffixes of the singular, having ( ${ }^{( }$) hefore them, assume the same form


 ing, 1 Sam. 19. 4; ? prem kine, Ex. 17: 3; and perhaps the same, [i. e. the singular], in צ'צ゙ , my Maker, Job 35: 10.
On the other hand, suffixes are not unfrequently annexed to nouns of





$$
\text { § } 92 .
$$

Change of Vowels in the formation of feminine Nouns.

1. By appending the fem, termination $\mathrm{n}_{-}$, ( $\left.\$ 79,2\right)$, the same changes are produced in masc. nouns, as are brought about by the light-suffixes which begin with a voovel, because the tone is affected in the same manner, i. e. is removed one place.
E. g.

2. The ending $-\frac{\text { produces the same shortening of the vow- }}{\text { - }}$
 חֲּקֶּת. But the last syllable is variously modified, in order to receive the Segholate-ending $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{v}}$.

(b) The ( $(-)$ either remains, or goes into $(-)$; as
(c) The vowels usually immutable, go into their corresponding mutable
 fem. ת.

Thus three forms of the fem. Segholates arise, viz. --- (for
 Segholates in Par. VI. of $\S 91$. The ending $\xlongequal[-]{-}$ for the Guttural forms, changes the preceding vowel into $(-)$, whatever it may be; e. g. עוֹרָ, fem.

Note 1. A peculiar form r-( for -$)^{\circ}$ ), see above, § 73, n. 3. Of a
 13: 5,7 , i. e. it resembles question, in all the three places where it occurs, stands connected with the second pers. fem. of the Perfect, it may perhaps receive its shape in the way of intended resemblance to that form of the Perf., (a kind of alliteration); for the third pers. fem. of this word is regular ( $\curvearrowleft 7$ ™), Gen. 17: 19. Is. 7: 14.

Note 2. When the ending $-\div$ is joined to masculines of the VIII. Declension, the doubling of the last letter is intermitted, as it consists not
 but fem. $\boldsymbol{n}$,

[^79]
## § 93. <br> Paradigms of the Feminines.

These are much more simple than the masculines, because, in their formation, they have already undergone most of the changes which the forms allow, $(\$ 90,3)$.



In the plural, there is no practical difference between the light and the grave suffixes; for all of them attach to the construct form.
The following Table or Paradigm shows how the different classes of the fem. nouns are declined, or varied to suit the nature of the case; the Explanations follow:

 (queen) (shame) (desert) (sucker) (scull)







(thighs) (double (cymbals) (chains)
—consiruct.

## Explanations.

1. Par. $A$. needs no explanation, for the vowels and consonants are immutable. Par. B. comprises those feminines which have a mutable $(-)$ or $(-)$ before the fem. ending $\Pi_{-}$.
 forms of Dec. II. IV. V. masc., and several under Dec. IX.

When the penult Qamets or Tsere is preceded by a Sheva, $(\S 26,4)$, and either of those vowels falls away by means of declension or suffixes, a new closed syllable arises, with a proper short vowel in the room of the Sheva.
 -

Many nouns, however, form Segholates for the fem. construct and suffix here, in $\stackrel{-\pi}{\because},-\dot{-}$, $(\S 87,2$ b. $\S 92,2)$; and not unfrequently the two forms (the normal and the Segholate) coexist.
 -焹

An immutable ( - ) penult have all nouns like אַּ ( 28), const. bals as are of the form אֲבֵרָה , ( 883, No. 13); while some admit of change here, e. g. שְׁאֵָּה , ( $\$ 83$, No. 2). The Lex. gives due information in these cases.
2. Par. C. comprises the feminine forms of the Segholate nouns of Dec. VI. masc. above, and therefore has an analogy with them.
 der the middle stem-letter, as nin ? his guard here not to confound these nouns with others of the like forms, but not derivates from Segholates; in particular the derivates of $\#$, of the
 first syllable is immutable.
3. To the Par. D. belong the Segholate forms which have arisen from the addition of the fem. ending $\frac{-}{-},(\$ 92,2)$; which correspond quite accurately to the masc. Segholates, ( $\$ 81$, Par. VI.)

Other examples besides these in Par. $D$, are מַּטְּ
 flexion, however, is found here, in those Segholates in r-m which stand



The plural of these nouns is often constructed as from a coexisting form in $\pi-$ or $\pi-$, (Par. B). E. g. n.


## § 94. <br> List of irregular Nouns.

1. A number of irregular flexions of nouns, which for the most part respect only particular words, or a few analogous ones, may be most conveniently arranged in an alphabetical list. They are the more important, because the irregularities in question concern, as is usual in other languages, words that are of very common occurrence.
2. The greater part of these irregularities arises from the circumstance, that the const. state or the plural of these nouns is borrowed from another and different form from that of the abs. singular. The principle here developed is like to that in






 (see § 27, n. 2. b).
אֵּ one, (for with Dag. implicitum, §22, 1, comp. §27. n. 2.b), const.
 aphaeresis, § 19, 3), Ezek. 33: 30, as in Chaldee and Syriac. The plural makes $\begin{gathered}\text { annun some. }\end{gathered}$

 from a sing. אָּדָ).

אִּ man, is a weakened form out of (\$ $19,5 . n$ n.). Plur. rarely

 amaean, $\prod_{T} \underset{\tau}{ } \underset{\sim}{x}$, their fothers, etc.

[^80]


 ם בּ

 for ${ }^{2}$ ),
 Plur. nin

口


= טֶ water, plur. (comp. $\S 86 \mathrm{~b}, 1 . \mathrm{n} .2$ ), const. מֵּ, also in the reduplicate


 mouth,


## § 95. <br> Numbers; (a) Cardinals.

1. The Cardinals from 2-10 are, in Hebrew, nouns with an abstract meaning, like trias, decas, $\pi \varepsilon v \tau \alpha \dot{s} ;$ which, however,
 §94) are construed as adjectives. The other numbers have a masc. and fem. form, both properly of the like meaning, but by usage so separated, that the masc. form is joined with fem. nouns, and the fem. form with masc. nouns. Only in the dual, , impun , does the gender accord with that of the noun.

The following Table presents the Units, and their respective forms:

| Connected with the Masc． |  |  | Connected with the Fem． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Absol． | Constr． | Absol． | Constr． |
| 1. | TTS | TTE | THN | กTN |
| 2. | ニワบบ์ | วบข | อฺ¢＊＊ | 9 ภํ |
| 3. | －u゙ッ |  | ジว |  |
| 4. | กyฆา | ภข้อง | บจาง | บขา＊ |
| 5. | －umb | รบ์ได | セบ\％ | －\％ |
| 6. | － | ¢\％ | ＂ | 4 |
| 7. | －セニセ | กขบセ | ソニギข | บユบ์ |
| 8. |  | กอ่าช์ | －9\％＊＊ | －n\％ |
| 9. | ーシบ゙ร | รูของ | ขง | บบ่ร่ |
| 10. | ーブ\％ | กา\％ | 7 \％ | า \％\％ |

This same peculiarity，in regard to the connection of the gender，extends essentially，with regard to these numbers，to all the Semitic languages．It may be explained on the ground，that originally the numbers 2－ 10 were abstract nouns，like $\delta \varepsilon x \alpha ́ s$, trias，etc．Consequently they might have nouns either of the masc．or fem．form．Since the fem．is the leading form in $a b-$ stracts，it was applied to the leading gender of nouns，i．e．the masc．；and then，as a consequence of this，the other or masc．form of the numerals was combined with fem．nouns；a discrepancy［in respect to usual con－ cord］，which only the usus loquendi could sanction and establish．$\dagger$ The ex－ ceptions to this general principle are very few；e．g．שָׁלuׁu 13．Ezek．7：2．Job 1：3，［fem．with fem．］．

Remaris．The simple numerals are certainly very old words，and they are essentially the same in all the Semitic languages．It is from this cir－ cumstance，that the argument is urged for the kindred relation of the Sem－ itic and Indu－Germanic languages；inasmuch as the numbers $1-7$ ，at first sight，have a great resemblance．With ưּ（properly ín in ，as the Arab．and Aethiopic show），one compares the Sanscrit shäsh；old Pers． csvas ；Greek $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\xi}$ ，for sex（the Latin expression of it）；old Slavic shesty．To צבַּּׁ（seven）is compared the Sansc．saptan；old Pers．haptan；new Pers．


[^81]A т@हĭs ; Lat. tres; [Eng. three]. So אֶחָ (one), Sansc. eka ;

 makes all these phenomena doubtful. Against the idea of near relation is
 nection, host), may be respectively referred to to repeat ; to שָׁun th to collect together, to contract, (comp. ץ bind, to connect, (comp. etymology for the other numbers; [but this proves little against the supposition of a Hebrew origin, inasmuch as the words are so old, and we have at present so little of the ancient living Heb. language].
2. The numbers from 11-19 are formed by placing the units, without a copula, before the number ten; yet without amalgamating them into one word. The Units, in this case, stand before the fem. numerals (with a masc. form), in the const. state; which here, however, merely indicates close connection, and not a proper Genitive, (\$114).

The three first numbers are here subjoined, which exhibit some variations from the general principles; viz.


The last number affords the model for all the remainder. These composite numbers have no const. state, and are used only adverbially. Seldom are even the masc. units (with fem. form) placed in the const. state; as (
3. The tens from $30-90$ are expressed by the plural form of the corresponding units.

[^82]Numely： 80， 90.
 are of the common gender，and admit no const．state．When units are joined with the tens，（like 21,32 ，etc．），the ancient IIe－ brew puts them first，（as one and twenty）；while the later He－ brew arranges them in exactly the reverse order．
See and comp．Num．3：39．26：14． 1 Chron．12：28．18：5．The copula


 shortened in the same manner as the const．form would be．

The remaining numbers are




Note 1．The dual form of some of the units is occasionally formd，and has the meaning of our word fold in seven－fold，etc．E．g．אֲרחה four－ fold， 2 Sum．12：16；E．ine seven－fold，Num．15：24．Ps．79：12．Besides those plurals which mark the collective tens，occurs the plur．of one，i．e．


Note 2．The suffixes to numbers are properly Genitives after them，as in the case of nouns．In translating we make these suffixes pronoun－adjectives
 you three．

$$
\S 96
$$

Numbers；（b）Ordinals．
The Ordinals from 2－10，are formed from the cardinals by appending ${ }^{-}$－，（ $\$ 8.5$ ．No．5）．Commonly（ - ）is also in－ serted in the preceding syllable．

E．g． ． which comes from $\because \dot{x}-$ ，the head，beginning，etc．；with the ending $\dagger^{-1}$ ， （ $\$ 85$ ．No．4．）Feminines here have the ending $\pi-$ ，seldom $n-$ ，and in－ dicate part，portion；as $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ ת forms occasionally have this meaning ；e．g．ビック fifth part，ジシー and エミา a fourth part．

N．B．In regard to the manner in which the other relations of numbers are expressed，they have no special forms adapted to them；and $\$ 118$ in the Syntax gives the requisite information．

## CHAPTER IV.

OF THE PARTICLES.

§ 97.

## General View.

1. The Particles, which in general express the associated limitations of speech, the specific relations of words between themselves, and the mutual relations of sentences to each other, have mostly the form of nouns; but some of them have forms borrowed from pronouns and verbs, $(\$ 30,4)$; and only a few can with certainty be regarded as primitive.
2. Particles not primitive may be classed, in respect to their rise, in the following manner: (1) Those borrowed from other parts of speech, whose forms they adopt, either of the noun, pronoun, or verb, while more or less of their original meaning is retained, as the nature of the case demands.* Or, (2) They are derived from other parts of speech in two ways; viz. (a) By
 from bin day, ( $\$ 98,3)$. While this is frequent, yet still more frequent, (b) Is the formation of particles by abridgment. But this is sometimes carried so far, that the origin of the words is obscured.
E. g. 꾸 only (prop. certainly, surely). Comp. in German, gen out of gegen, and ultimately from Gegend; seit from Seite, etc. ; [Eng. ne'er for never.] Farther still do the Greek and Latin go, in such abridgments; e. g. ù $\pi$ ó, $a b$, $a$; $\dot{\varepsilon} \xi, e x, e$; Lat. ad, French $\grave{a}$; Lat. aut, ou, Ital. o ; Lat. super, Ital. su. In some cases even several words are drawn into one; e. g. forsitan $=$ fors sit an. In Chinese, most of the particles are verbs and nouns; e. g. iu, to give, also a sign of the Dative; $i$, to use for one's self, and also to, for ; nëi, the inner part, also $i n$.

Most of all does this process of abridgment develope itself, when it is carried so far as to destroy the independent form of the word, and to cause that merely as a single consonant it should be prefixed to some other word; as, for example, in re-

[^83]spect to the praeformatives of the Imperfect in verbs, (\$ 47, 1. 2). In such a way, ?, coming from $3 \times$, is prefixed to words.

That the curtailing of whole words, even to a single letter, is in accordance with the general usages of langnage, is clear from the fact, that the later Hebrew and Aramaean, (and so of other Semitic languages), practise, in this way, both oftener and to a greater extent. So in the Hebrew, first becomes $\because \because$, then $\underset{\sim}{\text { ن }}$ in the latest books of the O . Test. ; and among the Rabhins the full form is rarely to be met with. In Chaldee, $\quad$ T goes later into 7 ; in new Arabic, we have hallaq out of halvaqt, etc.; and so, in numerous cases. The analogy of the western languages, (as exhibited above), shows the same usage. Still, the most simple of all particles belongs to the most ancient epochs of the Hebrew, at any rate to the oldest monuments of the language.

That particles, reduced to a single letter or syllable, should sometimes be obscure as to their etymology, is natural. In the mean time this is not frequent; and the general probability remains, that even such particles were originally derived in such a way as the others.
3. More seldom are particles formed by compounding several words.

 upper part. But it is more common still, to write the component words

§ 98.
Adverbs.

1. As primitive adverbs we may regard the negatives $\times \dot{x}$ not, א there is not; also some particles of time and place, as there, twe then.

At least we may consider this as the nearest standing point of the grammarian, even if it be possible to trace the words to other roots, namely to pronominal ones.
2. As forms of other parts of speech, which are employed adverbially without any further change, various classes occur: viz.
(a) Nouns with prepositions ; as 4xּen, very much; ; only (prop. apart);


 (union), logether. In some of them, the noun-meaning is rare ; e. g. ביבּ
(circle), around. In others, it does not occur at all ; פְּ (length), long ago ; דis (repetition), further, yet (continuative).
(c) Adjectives, specially of the fem. (which corresponds to the neuter);
 much, many, enough; תִּקֶּ wonderfully, (prop. mirabilibus, sc. modis);

(d) Like the Inf. abs. specially in Hiphil ; (to be regarded as in the Acc.,

(e) Like Pronouns ; e. g. तy here, (prop. in this place).
N. B. See a synopsis of the usual adverbs, and of their meaning, $\S 14 \%$.
3. Other adverbs are made by the addition of the formative syllable $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{T}}$, (rarely - -), to nouns.

 the wink of an eye.-Moreover these endings $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{T}}$ and E - are sometimes employed in the formation of proper nouns, like $\dagger_{-} \dagger_{-}$, ( $\$ 83$, No. 15); e. g.
 therefore, may be considered as denominative nouns adverbially employed; which alters nothing essential in the case. The meaning and analogy here are usually very plain.
4. Adverbs are formed by curtailing longer words.
E. g. אַא only, (properly only so, from the interrogative; as an is it not? is it even? from the fuller form 3스, Deut. 32: 6.
N. B. The punctuation of this may be $\underset{\sim}{-}$, $\overbrace{-}$ (with Dag.), 프 (without Dag.), or $\pi$; all these depending on the letter or vowel which follows; see Lex. .
5. Some adverbs which include a verbal idea, may take a pronoun-suffix; usually this is a verbal suffix which has a epenthetic.




§ 99.

## Prepositions.

1. Most words which appear as prepositions, are, (a) Nouns in the Acc. and const. state ; or, (b) Nouns in the const. state preceded by prepositions, specially the prefix-ones.
（a）The preposition being in the const．state，the noun that follows is pro－ perly in the Gen．；and so it is designated in Arabic．So in the English： instead of evil ；Lat．hujus rei causà．So wnen（hinder part），behind，after； לxצn（side），near ；בֵּ（midst），between ；and
 fore，over against； $\boldsymbol{i}$（part），from，out of；（anterior part），before，over against；（continuance），while，during，until；לֵ彐（upper part），on，over； EP（comection），also $\Gamma$ ，rex Most of these are actually employed as nouns．
（b）Construct nouns with prepositions are frequently employed as mere pre－
 command），in consequence of，according to ；בִּ（on the occasion of），on ac－ count of；$\vDash=$ ごこ（with the design），because of，on account of．

2．Specially nouns that are used adverbially，are easily con－ verted into prepositions．

E．g．

§ 100.
Of the Prefix－prepositions．
1．Of the words already named，ia from，out of，is frequently employed as a prefix－preposition；but so that the 9 falls out，or rather assimilates（by a Dag．）with the next succeeding letter； as מיעּ ，out of the forest．

More precise particulars follow．The independent usually stands only before the article；e．g．הָ \％\％［when employed in other cases］，it is particularly made use of before the feeble letters，as $\uparrow \uparrow$ M， 1 Chron．5：18，and elsewhere in the later books，as also in Syriac． Also there is a poetic form ，（specially in Job）．Commonly it takes the form＇ 3 （with Dag．forte），which Dag．can be omitted only in case the let－ ter that receives it is pointed with a Sheva，$(\$ 20,3$ ，b）．Before Gutturals
 Gen．14： 23.

Three prepositions，by far the most common of all in Hebrew， are abridged down to a single consonant with a simple Sheva， （ $\$ 97,2$ ）；viz．

푼，in，on，with，from $\pi$ ．
3，to，towards，at，from לֵ．
$د$ ，as，according to，from 证．＊

[^84]Punctuation. (a) These prepositions of themselves have a simple Sheva. But this, according to $\$ 28,1,2$, is changed according to the letters and
 feeble letters, in conformity with $\$ 23,2$ and $\$ 24,1 a$; e.g.

(b) When put before the article, they usually cause it to be dropped, and take the vowel which belonged to it under themselves. See $\S 35, \mathrm{n} .2$.
(c) Immediately before a tone-syllable, either in a monosyllabic word, or in a penacuted dissyllabic one, i. e. in the fore-tone syllable, they take $(-)$, according to $\$ 26,3$. This, however, is not uniformly the case, but only, (1) Before the Inf. mode of the forms just mentioned, as $\pi \mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{T}}$ to give,

 (2) Before many forms of pronouns; e. g. . moreover ロּีּ When a monosyllabic or penacuted dissyllabic word is very closely connected with the preceding word, and 3 comes between, it usually takes $(-)$, and specially at the end of a clause or sentence; e. g. תֶּ , 2 , 2 K. 10: 21, , Gen. 1: 6. See Dent. 17: 8, where is a complete exhibition of the manner in which the punctuation of ? at the end of a clause, differs


(4) To the interrogative $\underset{\text { pren }}{\text { the }}$ are attached, by a (_) with a Daghesh forte following it; e. g. nּ cent). Comp. Vav consec. of the Imperf., § 48, b. 2. But before Gutturals, the last word is usually read $n$.
Note. Before the word הָּine, (which has not its own proper vowels, but those of



## § 101.

## Prepositions with Suffixes, and with Plural-forms.

1. So far as the prepositions are originally nouns (§99), they are connecled with pronouns in the same way as nouns are, i. e. the pronouns assume the same form which they take when they are noun-suffixes, $(\$ 88,1,2)$.
 place), instead of me; like the Lat. mea causa, and the German meinetwegen.
to approach, accessit, (Heb. and Aram. $\pi_{T}^{-3}, \underset{T}{2}$, adhaesit, se adjunxit, Arab. $n^{2}$ [valà] accessit), is beyond a doubt. In respect to from thence in), see Ges. Lex. sub voce. - (from ${ }^{\circ}$ ). properly means so; repeated as - ? it means as - so.

Nove 1. The Prep. Fs uith, (from ras), is distinguished by the punctuation from -x (
 fast its original $O$ for the most part, (but not always); as rix, $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{x}$, Tx, mix, viz. I. II. Kings, Jer., and Ezek., 下N with, assumes the same form as the other with $O$; as




Note 3. It is rare that verbal suffixes are joined with prepositions; yet sometimes it occurs ; e. g. . 2 Sam. 22: 37. 40: 48; (different in Ps.
 cause of the rhyme with plained by the fact, that the direction whither is on the mind; e. g. "n man under me, 2 Sam., etc. :

2. When suflixes are added to the prefix-prepositions, specially when the suffixes are short, here and there occur cases of prolonging the prepositions, in order to give more body and steadfastness to them. Hence it comes, that the appended syllable in is connected with $\underset{\sim}{?}$; with is joined a second $i ?$ Daghesh forte ( $\uparrow$ ? long vowel $(-)$ is employed.

The following table, will be of use to the learner:
(a) ? with Suffixes:


In the same way $¥$, excepting that the third pers. plur. reads

(b) with Suffixes:

Sing. Plur.

2. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}m . \\ f .\end{array}\right\}$ as thou.


(c) with Suffixes:

Sing.
1.



Plur.
:18. from us.
品


Explanations. * It has frequently been asserted of ${ }^{2}=\frac{T}{\tau}$, that it stands for the sing. ib; and various attempts in divers ways have been made to explain it. Some analogy may be found in Actually it is employed only in a collective sense; e. g. Gen. 9:26, (in reference to Shem and the Semitae) ; Ps. 28: 8. 73: 10, (in reference to the peo-
 Is. 53: 8, (in reference to the foregoing into, his generation, i. e. he and the like of him).

The same is the case with the ungodly, who, in the whole description (vs. 5-20), constitute a collectivum, and in fact the description begins, in v. 5 , with the plur.
 striking is clearly a collective.
$\dagger$ Not
$\ddagger$ The is here put for - , and has its ground barely in euphony.
Remarks. The syllable $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ in and so lit, according to that which I, i. e. as I), is appended to the three pure
 pear as independent words, and of course are prolonged ones. Poetry is distinguished in such matters from prose, i. e. by its prolonged forms. In respect to $i ?$, however, it has chosen the contrary shorter forms, like to the Syriac.
 then coincides with that of the 1st pers. plur. - - yse The Palestine grammarians direct us to write this last (in the way of distinction) ?

3. Several prepositions, specially those of space and time, are properly nouns plurul, [like the Germ. wegen, and our Eng. alecays]; see $106,2 . a$, for the ground of this. They occur in part exclusively, (and in part together with the singular forms), and take the form of the plur. construct, receiving suffixes in the same manner as nouns plural (\$89, 2).
 traced to probable singular forms, such as wen, ene , wize but the analogy of others makes it more probable that we are to regard them as proper


 - (region, direction), tourards, to, unto ; with suff. always sen, to me,

$\mathfrak{T}$, (interstice), between; with suff.

Tr from, out of, rarely (const. plur.), Is. 30: 11.

 der ¥).
 (only pret.); with suff. poetry.
תn in the under-part), under; with suff: in the plur.


## § 102.

## Conjunctions.

1. Conuunctions serve to connect sentences, clauses, and words, and to express the relation between them. Most of them come from other parts of speech, which originally are pronouns, adverbs, or prepositions.
(a) Pronouns ; as $\boldsymbol{- w}$ nant relative pronoun ; the second comes from a pronominal stem, (\$36).
 however. Also adverbs with prepositions; as 5 (in the not-yet), before; or with another conjunction added, as ans moreover, much less then.
(c) Prepositions; i. e. such as serve for the commection of sentences, etc., by conuecting them with the conjunctions and wa ; e. g.



The conjunction itself may be omitted, and the preposition be employed as
 because.

In like manner, also, all prepositions before the Inf. may be explained as conjunctions, (§ 130, 2).
2. Even those which are in use merely as conjunctions, appear to have belonged originally to other parts of speech, viz. to have been properly nouns, and to develope a relation to verbal roots.
E. g. is, or, (prop. will, from त্ָ꾸, comp. Prov. 31: 4), like the Latin vel, ve, in relation to velle; 鼬, lest, that not, (turning away, the most common of all, seems to be connected with 79 (connection, hook, nail).

The punctation of $\operatorname{Vav}(\underset{\square}{(!)}$ ) is, in many respects, analogous to that of $\underset{\sim}{m}$, \}, § 100,2 . But, as a more feeble letter, it has some things peculiar to itself; e. g.
(a) Commonly it has a simple Sheva, (1) .
(b). Before words with simple Sheva under their first letter, the $V a v$ has a vowel sound $\left.{ }^{( }{ }^{\circ} \vec{u}\right)$; as ${ }^{3}$ ?
 even before a Hhateph Sheva, when it does not stand under a Guttural, as בสั゙ท, Gen. 2: 12.
(c) Before ( ${ }_{(7)}$ ), it obtains Hhireq magnum, e. g.
 20: 7. (Comp. § 62. n. 5.)
(d) Inmediately before a tone-syllable, it often takes $(-)$, like to $\underset{\sim}{3}, 3$, , (§ 100, 2. c.), specially when two short words, as a kind of couplet, are brought together; e. g. . 22. Specially does this take place, at the end of sentences or clauses; e. g.

$\S 103$.
Interjections.

1. Among the interjections are many words which are


2. Most of them, however, are from other parts of speech, and they become interjections by a more animated utterance and use of them.
E. g.
and used for excitement, come now! do now! etc.; לְְ (go, go and ye), = age, agite ;a ${ }^{\text {a }}$, צִּ), I pray you! hear me! up ! come on! (In Ethiop. an Imper., come on, come!) These particles of requiring and beseeching, are placed after other words. $b$
(a) דָּ דָּ the plural; which shows that they have taken upon them the nature of interjections.
(b) This last word serves for the expression of manifold niceties of speech, which are pointed out in divers parts of the Syntax. Here, only a mere sketch. ָּ stands, (a) After the Imper., both of command and of request, ( $\$ 127,3$ ). (b) With the Imperf., both of first and third persons, $\{125,3$ and 126, 1. (c) Once with the Perfect, § 124, 4. (d) With several particles; e. g. , חֵּה נָא , see now! Specially with conjunctions; e. g. אַא , ne (quaeso),
 courteously and modestly expressed. Those who speak courteously or reverentially often employ this particle in a variety of ways; see Gen. 18:3.19: 7, 8, 19. 50: 17.

## THIRD LEADING DIVISION.

## S Y N T A X .

## CHAPTER I.

## SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

§ 104.

## Relation of the Noun to the Adjective; of the Abstract to the Concrete.

The Hebrew language has, in proportion to its Nouns, a deficiency in respect to adjectives; and several kinds of these, viz. of material, are almost entirely wanting.* This defect is supplied by nouns, particularly in the following ways:

1. A noun of quality is placed after the word designed to be qualified, in the Genitive.

Constantly so in respect to the designation of the material; as $\bar{\square}$ ver vessels, (lit. vessels of silver); חבבת יֵצִים (an ark of wood), a wooden ark, (like the French des vases dor); and so when an eternal possession,
 precious stone, Prov. 17: 8. So often, even in cases where adjectives exist ;
 the French, un homme de bien. [So often in English: Vessels of gold-sil-ver-wood-stone ; garments of wool-cotton-linen-silk, etc.; man of benevolence-malignity—blood, etc.]
Note 1. Seldom does the noun of quality precede, while the other fol-
 choice vallies, Is. 22: 7. Comp. Is. 17: 4. 37: 24. Gen. 23: 6. Ex. 15: 4. But this is the usual position of (universality) in the sense of all, entirely, ( $\$ 109,1$ ).

[^85]Note 2. Even where the adjective, as predicate, should stand alont, substantives are often employed for it; e.g. The earth was desolation and emptiness, Gen. 1: 2; Let this day be darkness, Job 3: 4. See Ps. 35: 6. ع8: 19. 110: 3. Is. 5: 12. Job 23: 2. 26: 13. Seldom has the noun in question [standing for an adjective] a preposition with it ; as in Ps. 29: 4, The voice of the Lord is rim with strength, i. e. strong, powerful.
2. Adjectives which indicate possession, quality, custom, and the like, are often made in Hebrew, by a noun descriptive of quality, etc., put in the Gen. after another noun indicating the possessor or subject of the quality, etc.


 son and rendaughter; as לחּ Gen. 29: 1 ; בֶּ


Bolder and more poetical is it, when the abstract is put directly for the concrete; e.g. (good-for-nothingness), a villain, a base person; as in Lat. scelus for scelestissimus. Such an abstract noun also may have the nature of a collective, and represent classes or bodies of men; as $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ (bow), bowmen, Is. 21: 17; pry (harvest), reapers, harvesters. Principles like these are common in all languages, § $82, \mathrm{n} .1$.

Note. On the other hand, adjective forms and concretes, specially in the feninine, often pass over to an abstract sense; see various forms in $\S 83$, and comp. § $105,3, b$.

Remari. It is proper to remark here, that poetry employs certain epithets of eulogy in such a way as to use them constantly, without supplying
 erful, i. e. bull, but in Jer. for the horse; ith majestatic, august, for prince;
 for the orean, Odyss. I. 97.
§ 105.

## Of the use of Gender.

Whether the Hebrews regarded a noun as fem. or not, may be known partly from the fem. ending of the same, (\$79, 1. 2); and partly by its being constructed with ferm. predicates. The fem. plural form generally indicates fern. gender, but not always; see $\S \delta 6,4$. Here our design is, to point out the ratio in which the signs of the fem. gender are employed.

1. Most natural was it to indicate a distinction of this,na-
ture in the physical conformation of men and beasts. But in respect to this, there are several gradations, the more or less easily the distinction of gender can be apprehended. Most of all is the distinction recognized,
(a) When a separate word is chosen to designate each sex. No peculiar ending of the word, in such a case is necessary; as, for example, in our English father, mother ; ox, cow; and so in Hebrew, אָ and wan ; ram, and 3 לחָ eve ;
(b) When the fem. has an appropriate termination; e. g.
 a male calf,
(c) When the fem. gender is manifested only by the context, (Communia).
 Gen. 24: 63 masc., 32: 16 fem. ; and so ${ }^{7}$ Tㅜㅜ cattle, Ex. 22: I. Job 1: 14.
(d) When a word is chosen without reference to any distinction of gender, which is generic and comprises both sexes, (Epicoena). Thus the eagle, the kite, etc., in English; and in Hebrew, דּ the bear, $\begin{gathered}\text { שַׁפּ a bereaved bear, }\end{gathered}$ Hos. 13: 8, fem. in 2 K. 2: 24; 月药

Remarks. (1) Often, where distinctions of gender are made by appropriate words or forms of them, they are disregarded by writers, [when the distinction in question is not important to their object]. E. g. חֲח for
 for $\begin{gathered}\text { grenc girl, in Pent. and in Ruth 2: 21, comp. Job 1: 19. So in English, }\end{gathered}$ spouse, consort, for either sex; and in Arabic also, where, in more elevated style, the use of the fem. is avoided, (such forms, for example, as it mistress, עֲ לnimide), although among the later writers usage is different.

The like reluctance to employ the fem. is exhibited in some passages of the Heb. writings ; e. g. আime artificer, Prov. 8: 30, where the subject is fem., (like Pliny's artifex omnium natura, 2. 1); and so na a dead person, said of a woman, Gen. 23: 4, 6; צی\% God, said of a goddess, $1 \mathrm{~K} .11: 5$. So in English : friend, teacher, martyr, author, witness, etc.
(2) Among the epicenes (d. above), the races of beasts are named as masc. or fem., according to the manner in which they exhibit themselves as strong or weak, bold or timid; e. g. masc. שֶׁ שֶׁב , wolf; fem.

2. Most normal is the designation of gender in adjectives and participles, according to usual principles, see § 79.
3. Besides the proper feminines, the fem. form is often employed to designate objects, which in Greek and Latin are called neuter gender.* These may be classed thus:

[^86](a) Things without life; for which the fem. form, as indicative of that which is weaker, appeared the most appropriate; e. g. $\boldsymbol{\eta}_{\boldsymbol{T}}^{\boldsymbol{T}}$ (loins of a man),

(b) Abstracts, which prefer the fem. form, even when a masc. is in use;
 jectives is predominantly used for the neuter gender and substantive meaning; as तְּנְ rectum, to o@ษóv, Ps. 5: 10. In the like way is the fem. plural employed; as nibitg great things, Ps. 12: 4.
(c) Sometimes the fem. is employed to designate rank, dignity, or office; which comes near to the abstract meaning ; as mimechiefs, (lit. highnesses), [and so our Eng. excellency, etc.]; ס ק scribe, Neh. 7: 57. Ezra 2: 55. Even in the fem. plur. form, תאָּ fathers, a reference to the dignity of office seems not improhable. These words are all employed as masc., i. e. according to their true meaning. In a large extent is this usage to be found in Arab., Aethiopic, and Aramaean; e. g. Hhaliphat, Caliphate for Caliph. A somewhat remote resemblance is found in magistracy, magistratus, lordship, Ital. podesta, etc.
(d) Collectives; as traveller,
 habitants, Mic. 1: 11, 12; 5یֵی (eumity) for enemies, Mic. 7: 8, 10. Very common in Arabic. Comp. the poetic daughter of Tyre $=$ sons of Tyre, i. e. the iuhabitants of Tyre ; so daughter of my people $=$ sons of my people, i. e.
 cedar wainscoting. In Greek: tò iлльхóv and $\mathfrak{\eta}$ ínлоฏ for cavalry; and so ข讠 хá $\mu \eta \lambda$ os in Herodotus.
(e) On the contrary, there is an occasional usage which is the exact reverse of this, viz. the fem. is used as an inder unitatis, when the masc. is used generically; e. g.

 But this usage is unfrequent, [and only the remains of a more ancient custom.]
4. Some words, which have no distinctive fem. ending, are shown to be feminine by the construction in which they are placed. Besides those mentioned above, (No. 1. a), they consist principally of the following classes:
(a) The names of countries and touns, considered, as it were, as the mother or nurse of the inhabitants;* e. g. -ی. Assyria, feminine.

[^87]So also are the appellatives which distinguish country, town, and generally



Inasmuch as the names of nations, for the most part, are treated as masc., it not unfrequently happens, that the same noun as the name of a nation is masc., and as the name of the country, feminine; e. g. חהּחָּ (masc.) the Jeivs, Is. 3: 8, but in Lam. 1: 3, it stands for Judea, and is feminine. So Eสא, Idumerns, masc., and Jer. 49: 17, Idumea, feminine. Still, occasionally the names of nations are constructed as feminine ; e. g. in Job 1: 15. 1 Sam. 17: 21. 1s. 7: 2. 21: 2. To this the pertic personification of nations as females attaches itself; e. g. 47: 1. 50: 1. 54: 1 seq. Lam. 1: 1 seq. Ezek. 16.
(b) The members and parts of the human or animal body; e. g. such as and $\approx$ ַַ hand,
 instruments of service. $\dagger$ Hence, also, lifeless instruments and furniture are
 שֶּ fem. in the kindred languages.
(c) The words for light, fire, and other powers of nature; e. g. werve the sun,



## § 106.

## Of the Plural and Collectives.

1. Besides the appropriate plur. endings ( $(86,1,2)$, the Janguage has employed other expressions as indicative of plurality; e. $g$.
(a) Particular words with a collective meaning; to which nomina unitatis correspond; e. g. שטׁוֹ a beeve, of the small cattle, $\mathfrak{i x s}$ small cattle, i. e. sheep and goats. (Comp. Eng. twenty people). (b) The fem. ending as generic, $\$ 105,2, c$. (c) Nouns singular, of which many have a collective meaning; as אָ mun or men, Gen. 1:26; שָּ man, men, humanity, (quasi men-ness, Germ. Mannschafl); ${ }^{7}$ Tָָ
sons of Bulyylon, Ezek. 23: 15. (as in other cases we have sons of the house, -of the mother's womb, etc.)

* This last word is normally masc.; and among the others, there is an oscillation between the two genders.
$\dagger$ Some of these words oscillate between the two genders, sometimes being treated

$\ddagger$ Particulars, in the Lex. Finally, some words with a fem. ending, which are oc-
 time, (for $\pi-y$ ). One seems hardly to have perceived their origin.

चnix enemy，enemies．The article is prefixed，when the entire genus is de－ signated，§ 107， 1.

2．On the other hand，the plurality designated by the plural ending is sometimes applied to other kindred relations，so that the Hebrew often employs the plural，where other languages make use of the singular．＇The plural form，then，is employed to designate，
（a）Extension＊of space or time ；and therefore it is often employed to de－ signate spaces，regions，etc．E．g．ニ．
 Also for certain members which occupy space on the hody；as $=\mathbf{T} \boldsymbol{T}$ face，
 fauces）．Agrain，time，periods of time；as


（b）To might or power，so far as this is conceived of as originally some－ thing divided and manifold．E．g．בצּדֵ God，（he it that this word first came from polytheistic views，and was transferred to the＂God of gods，＂ or that it was intended，consistently with monotheism，to designate the power of God in its various manifestations）．In accordance with this， $\boldsymbol{\text { Prener }}$ ， the holy One，Hos．12：1．Prov．9：10．30：3，（comp．Josh．24：19，and Chald．
 even when it means ouly one image， 1 Sam．19：133，16．Further，ロ＂צִּ ；wָּ，the Lord；e．g． lord of the country，Gen．42：30；and so master，often（plur．）his master，דָּ בּ Mer master．$\dagger$

Note 1．The usage noted under（b）above is confined to narrow limits， not going beyond the words there quoted．Even those worls may be em－ ployed also in the singular．In respect to the construction of such plurals with ardjectives，see § 110 ，1．n． 3 ；with verbs，§ 143 ，2．Respecting to designate God，see § 119，n． 4.

Note 2．The plurals under（a）above，are but few in ordinary prose；but

[^88]

3. When a substantive is followed by a Genitive, and the idea of the whole needs to be made plural, this is accomplished in several ways; viz.
(a) The first of the two nouns assumes the plural form; and this even in
 jamite, pl. 1 . 1 Sam. 22: 7.
(b) Both are put in the plural; as.


(c) Sometimes merely the second noun has the plural; e. g. $\mathfrak{Z}$ ヘָּ father's house, plur. most precious fruits, Cant. 4: 16. See in respect to this matter hitherto neglected by grammarians, Judg. 7: 25, "the head of Oreb and of Zeeb," i. e. heads; also 2 K. 17: 29. Dan. 11: 15. In such cases the composite ided is treated as a nomen compositum. Both the Syriac and Ethiopic exhibit all these three varieties ; see Hoffmann, Gramm. Syr. p. 254 ; Ludolf. Gramm. Ethiop. p. 139.

Suffixes in the plural, after the manner of (c), are frequently met with; e. g. their mouth $=$ their mouths, Ps. 17: 10;

4. For the designation of plurality, the repetition of a word, both with and without the copula, is sometimes employed.

This designates a thing considered collectively, or an aggregate made up of parts, and so, all, every; as Ein Ein, day day, i. e. every day, or all the while.
 ทing nit generation and generation, i. e. all - every generation, Deut. 32: 7.

[^89]Hence the same phrase is sometimes used in a distributive sense, as获, each herd by itself, Gen. 32: 17. Sometimes it is employed in a
 $\rightarrow \underset{\sim}{7}$ ח. many pits of asphaltus, or altogether asphaltus-pits, Gen. 14: 10; see 2 K. 3: 16. Joel 3: 14. Finally, it indicates several, (as 3 designates both
 of several weight, Deut. 25: 13; duplicity, Ps. 12: 3. 2 Chron. 12: 38.

Repetition in passionate addresses, (which in several writers, however, is so customary as to diminish from its intensity, c. g. Is. xi. seq.), is a matter of mere rhetoric, and not of grammar.

Note 1. Connected material, stuffs, etc., are generally conceived of as a unity; and consequently such words are almost solely in the singular; e. g.
 In case the mind adverts to severalty of parts, then of course the plur. is used; as $\mathfrak{a}$ Tְּ pieces of silver, Gen. 42: 25, comp. Is. 1: 25. So in regard to grain; ;

Note 2. In cases where a so-named poetic plural is employed, an actual plurality is to be supposed; as anacras for sea, Job 6: 3, comp. Gen. 41: 49. Job 17: 1, the pits are my lot, (because many of them are together). Job 21: 32.

## § 107. Use of the Article.

The article ( $\quad-, ~ \uparrow, ~ § 35) ~ w a s ~ o r i g i n a l l y ~ a ~ d e m o n s t r a t i v e ~ p r o-~$ noun, (like $\dot{\delta}, \dot{\eta}$, zó, in Homer) ; yet of so little strength, that it was almost never employed, except when attached (prefixed) to the noun.

This stronger demonstrative power the article still possesses in a few phrases; as helps to show that the article once had such a power, that, (1) It sometimes stands for a relative pronoun before a verb; ; who who found, 1 Chron. 29: 17. 26: 28. Josh. 10: 24. Ezra 8: 25, comp. Gen. 18: 21. 46: 27. Job 2: 11; and so 1 Sam. 9:24. (2) It also shows the demonstrative pronominal nature of the article, that it is used to connect, and refer back to, a previous subject-noun, in order to make this subject more prominent; in which case it is mostly connected with a participle ; e. g. Ps. 19: 10, The laws of the Lord are truth . . (v. 11) which are to be desired, [the article having a kind of relative-demonstrative force, and] being nearly as strong as ișָּ, in, or uitoi. So in Ps. 18: 33. 104: 3,

 who girds me with strength. 18: 48. Jer. 19: 13. Neh. 10: 38. [Everywhere in the Hehrew Scriptures is this participial use of the article to be found, and always in the sense of a relative-demonstrative, sometimes $=\boldsymbol{\sim}$ sometimes nearly the same as הֵמּהמ. To convert all these participles into nomina agentis as some grammarians do, with an article, is giving but an unsatisfactory account of this matter.-S.]

In general, the article is used as in the Greek, German, [and English]. It stands, of course, when a noun is repeated which had just been introduced; e. g. God said: Let there be light



So also when a thing is well known; or unique in its kind;


It is omitted, when the object is indefinite, general, or before unlinoun ; e. g. some of the above examples, also Ecc. 1: 12, I am king (シֶֶ) over Jerusalem.

As to the first cases stated ahove, it is only in poetry that the article can be omitted; and generally, it is employed less frequently there than in


The particular cases where the article is predominantly employed, may be reduced to the following heads:

1. When a generic word is cmployed in a collective way, and designates the whole or totality of any object.
E. g. the righteous, the unrighteous, Gen. 18: 25; the woman, for the whole of woman-kind, Ecc. 7: 26; the Canaanite, Gen. 13: 7. 15: 19, 20. This is like to our English idiom: The Russian, the Turk, etc.; and so in the Greek:

 in v. 21. Is not the design here to say merely: Any or every prisoner? Comp. § 109, 1. b].
2. When a generic word is intended to designate a particular individual.


 stands for the same, on the ground of its having become a proper name, § 108,1 ); i. e. of the Jordan.
3. By a like principle, the article is placed before nouns
which are the proper names of rivers，mountains，and touns， when the name is plainly an cuppellutive，and is regarded as such by him who employs it．

So German，die Nrustarlt；French，le Havre；in English，the White Mountuins：and，like to this，the Hebrew minn（lit．the stracm），＝the
 town $A$ i．But particularly in the names of towns is this usage，（a few cases excepted），rare；and in poetry it for the most part ceases，（comp． § 108,1 ）．

Note I．For our indefinite article $a$ ，the Hebrew article does not stand； but still，it shonld be remembered，that the Hebrews thought and spoke of many olijects difinithly，of which we speak indefinitely．This will be made plain by the following particulars：
（a）In comparisons，fimey，which paints the image of an object，makes it difinite to itself by contemplation，and it is spoken of as such；e．g．＇white as the snow ．．．red as the scurlut，＇Is．1：18；＇as the beasts，＇Ps．49： 15 ； ＇he will toss thee away as the ball，＇ls．22：18；＇the heasens shall he rolled awny as the book；＇Is．10：14．24：20．29：11．53：6．Ps．33：7．［To these may be added，for fuller sutisfaction to the inquirer，other passages in abum－ dance ；e．g．Ps．97：5．102：5，10，12， 27 （his）．103：5，15．Dent．1： 17 （bis）． 4：20．12： 15 （bis），16，23．Is．2：6．Josh．9：25．1s．29：3．40：22，25，31．41： 15．63：13，14．60： 14,15 ；and so in all parts of the Hebrew Scriptures．］ Even such cases as those in Judg．14：6．16：9．Is．29：8，11，come virtually within this principle．
Yet where the nomn compared is made drfinite by an adjective or partici－ pial，［or in any other way］，the article is omitterl，as it is thefore a Gen．；e．g．
 Comp．Ps，1：4 4 ²，with Is，29：5，（two noms after ？anarthrons，beranse each of them has an adjective with it）．［Roth cases are illustrated in Ps．102： 12．Instructive are the following cases；viz．Is．40：15，where two nouns with Pare anarthrons，being defined by comected noms that follow．Ps．102： 7，モ゙ニテ followed by a Gen．，and even the Gemitive after the noun with is not necessary in order to onit the article，for e．g．we have כִּ Is． 40：15．Anything which defines or limits，may cause its omission．Buth cases occur in Is．41：2；and so cases of hoth kinds，in Amos 5：24．－S．］
［Remarks．（1）Where even a relutive clause follows a noun with $\ddagger$ ，which clanse explains，limits，etc．，the article may be omittcd on the ground above stated；as in Is．1： 30 ad fin．Is．6it：13．（2）The limitation of Ges，and Roe－ diger above，that the article after $\geq$ is omitted only when the noun is made difinite by an adjective，is，in the first place，as we have already seen，to be modified by extending it to other cases of rlifining，limiting，etc．；bur， secondly，cases occur where the article is omitted after $亠$ ，even when none
of these reasons are applicable; e. g. Is. 66: 12, , בְּ ; 20: 4, בixik Jer. 25:
 predicament. Joh 16: 14, , בְּ,* which last case is recognized by Roedi-ger:-S.]
(b) The article is inserted before generic names of things well known, [even when they do not comprise the definite idea of totality, as in No. 1. above.] The Heb. says: The silver; the gold ; the water, the cattle, etc., [where we say : silver, gold, etc.]. Hence Gen. 13: 2, "Abrahum was 1 ich in the cattle, the silver, and the gold. The manner in which the Hebrew conceived of this, seems to have been thus: 'He had much of these well known treasures.' See the article in Gen. 41: 42. Ex. $31: 4$ (tris). 35: 2 (tris). Is. 1: 22, 上,
(c) Frequently do abstract nouns take the article, [and often where the English idiom would omit it]. Comp, the Greek no írлıóv, French la modestie. Hence the names of moral and physical evils may take it, [where the English would mostly omit it]. E. g. 4nin by the falsity, ls. 29: 21, [= ly falsity]; Gen. 19: 11, =rneow with the blindnesses, [ $=$ with blindness, or possibly it may be the name of a specific disease]; Is. (i0: 2, the darkness, [ = darkness, while in the very next clause, anarthrous]. The frequent time, not on a time. [May it not also mean: a certain time? See what follows.]
[How important it is to the interpreter, that some fixed principles should be fully developed here, (if there he any), every experienced exegete will readily see. Criticisms of high import stand comnected with it, in some very difficult passages. For further confirmation of the frequency of the article before abstracts, the following examples may serve, nearly if not quite all of which demand the omission of the article in English; viz. Is. 59: 15, דָּק Ecc. 10: 6, the folly . . . the lowliness; 1 K. 7: 14, filled with the wisdom, the intelligence, and the knowledge; Ecc. 7: 12, 17, the wisdom ; same in Job 28: 12, 20. Prov. 2: 2 (also the understanding); Ecc. 2: 13, the wisdom . . . the folly ; Zech. 8: 19, Love ye the truth and the peace; Mal. 2: 5, My covenant was the life and the peace; Amos 4:9,... smitten with the blasting and the withering; Jer. 24: 10, I have sent the famine and the pestilence; same in Jer. 27: 8; Jer. 27: 15, They prophesy . . . according to the falsehood. It would doubtless be easy to increase this list greatly, by reading and ouservation. I have omitted here many cases which I had noted as being of the same nature, hecause they are in the Gen., and a question might be made, whether the article does not belong in reality to the preceding noun; see §109, 1. Clear cases are needed for satisfactory proof. That the article is always used before abstracts, no one would think of asserting. But what

[^90]the proportion between arthrous and anarthrous examples of this nature is, has not yet been developed; nor whether, in the cases of insertion and omission, there is any perceptibly discrepant meaning of the same words.]
[ (d) Different from any of the shades of meaning yet noticed, seems to be the use of the article in a ferv cases, where the object is to designate an individuality of the class named, in distinction from the class itself, but not to point out specific individuality in the sense of distinction between $A$ and $B$. Or to be more brief and specific in statement, the article, in such cases, designates specific unity as partaking of a generic nature, or it as an index unitatis. It is kindred with No. 2 above, but not specific as to this or that individuality, but as to individuality in distinction from class. It is almost equivalent to the Greek $\tau \iota \varsigma$, in some of its shades of meaning ; and corresponds quite well with our phraseolory-a certain man, a certain lion, or some particular man, ete. In this way, we may perhaps explain several passages that have long been contested; e. g. 1 Sam. 17:34, And there came


 Is. T: 14, $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ certain young uoman. Gesenius and Roediger have referred all but the last of these cases to a similarity between this usage in respect to the article, and that in the case of abstracts; quasi a lionish nature, etc.; ingenious, but not quite satisfactory. Ewald (Gramm. 1 edit. p. $5(\mathrm{ij}$ ) refers such cases to a principle of this nature, viz., that 'when an object is regarded as single in its kind, but is yet called by the name of the genus, the article points ont in this case, one either as known, or in distinction from other kinds.' This is some approach to the statement above, but still it is quite distinct from it. The known seemis inappropriate in the cases stated; and from other kinds does not appear to designate the nature and object of distinction made by the article in the passages cited.-S.]

Note 2. The Vocatice admits the article; and generally, in cases where
 high priest! Zech. 3: 8. 1 Sam. 24: 9.

$$
\S 108
$$

## Omission of the Article.

1. It is omitted in proper names of persons, countries, and nations; in the last when they accord with the name of the original ancestor, or of the country. But Gentilicia admit it.
E. g.

2. Before nouns limited or defined by a following Gen., or by a suffix. These make the noun definite, so that the article
 ther.
Exceptiovs. There are cases where a noun, in a const. or suffix state, takes the article ; but the reasons of this are special ; viz. (a) When the demonstrative power of the article is required to be intensive ; as Jer. 32: 12, I
 So Josi. 8: 33, [Very rare].
(b) When the Genitive is a proper name, which excludes the article, (No.1.
 the God of Bethel, Gen. 31: 13; mine when the king of ilssyria, Is. 36: 16. Comp. Gen. 24: 67. Jer. 48: 32. Ezek. 47: 15, comp. with 48: 1.
(c) When the comection hetween the noun preceding the Gen. and the Genitive isself, is of the looser kind, so that the first word makes a sense in a measure complete by itself, and the Gen. ouly adds some supplementary idea.. In particular is this allowable, in cases where material is designated;

 Josh. 3: 14. Ex. 28: 39.
3. Before a predicate, which in its own nature is indefinite.
E. g. Gen. 29: 7, לina ain


Yet there are cases, where the nature of the predicate is such as to require
 12, פִּ , for it is my mouth which speaks; Gen. 46: 3, [ 3 , it not subject here?] Ex. 9: 27, [special emphasis]. Num. 3: 24, [?]. See another case where the predicate has the article, § 107. ad init. Remark, 2.*

$$
\text { § } 109 .
$$

## Use of the Article in connected Words.

1. When an idea is expressed by a noun in the construct state with its following Genitive, to which the article ought to be affixed, the latter has its location before the Gen. noun, although it qualifies the whole expression.
E. g. הּחָּ

[^91] words of the prophet, Jer. 28: 9.
(a) The same position does the Article occupy, when only the Gen. has
 a part of the field, 2 Sam. 23: 11, (see the contrary usage in Josh. 24:32.

 phraseology was usually chosen, see $\$ 112$.
(b) The usage of the article before the noun following 3. , may be explained by the aid of this. That noun has the article, where drfinite totality is meant, (like tous les hommes, toute la ville); and has it not in cases of indifinite universality, or a distributive sense $=$ each, (like tout hom-
 the whole earth ; on the contrary, 2; ${ }^{\circ}$ "గַ לָ every living thing.

Even in cases of composite words in proper names, [where the definite sense is needed], a solution takes place, and the article is put before the second noun; as a Judg. 3: 15 ;

Exceptions. These are, where the article stands before the first noun, and is omitted before the Gen.; see in $\$ 108,2 . b$. So in the later style; see Dan. 11: 31, comp. 12: 11 ; [which case will not compare witl $\S$ 108. 2.b, where the Geuitive is a proper name. This solution, therefore, is quite doubtful.]
2. When a substantive has the article, or (which is equivalent) has a Gen. or suffix after it, an adjective connected with it and qualifying it, also takes it; and so, too, the pronoun-adjectives, $\pi$ กֶ, ※ntion
 Gen. 28: 19 ; the great work of Jehovah.
(a) Not unfiequently does the article attach to the arljective only, so that the defniteness is superadded; e. g. הַשִׁׂׂ an day the sixth, or a day,
 Gen. 41: 26. 1 Sam. 19: 22. Ps. 62: 4. 104: 18. Neh. 3: 6. 9:35. Zech. 14: 10 ; and so ticiple, this is the usual construction; as powerful, Jer. 46: 16. 27: 3. [All such cases (with a participle) may be regarded as examples of the relative-demonstrative sense of the so-called ar-
tiele, and not to be reckoned among the appropriate developments of its later use.]
(b) Sometimes the noun alone has the article; Ezek. 39:27. 2 Sam. 6: 3. (But perhaps the text here is faulty). Yet such an omission of the article in the pronouns and $\pi$ is frequent, inasmuch as these are sufficiently
 Particularly is this the case, when the substantive is made definite only by
 16:5, 6, 15. By design is the adjective indefinite in slander of them ; the article before would give the meaning of the base slander, Gen. 37: 2.
[Remarks on the Syntax of the Article. Any reader of Hebrew, who is competent to note and analyze all the phenomenu of the article, will soon meet with difficulties which none of the preceding rules will satisfactorily remove. The simple truth is, that this part of Hebrew Grammar is, to the present hour, but imperfeetly enucleated. It needs a thorough reading of the Hebrew Scriptures mainly for this purpose, by a Grammarian who is well versed in all parts of his business. It is easy to ask questions in relation to this subject, that have not been satisfactorily answered. For example: What are the limits to the use of the article before the names of well-known and unique objects? Before proper names? Why do some of these always have the article; some oceasionally; others never? Why should morntains, rivers, and touns, have the article, when they are appellatices, and names of persons and countries have it not, when they both are of the same significance? Why do names indicating totality or individuality have it, and yet generic names. which belong to neither of these categories, often have it, and often have it not? What are the limits? Why do alsstracts now have it, and then have it not, without any assignable difference in the meaning of the words? Why is there the like oscillation in regard to nouns following $\quad$ ? What other limitations, besides the Gen. or a suffix to a word, exclude the article in such cases? Do not relutive clauses which define or limit, often admit the article in the noun preceding, and sometimes omit it? Are there any real cases, in which the predicute has it? What does the apposition of a second noun to a first having the article, demand in that second? Do all nouns, with suff. or Gen. after them. demand the article for the adjective that may be added? When the noun has the article, and the adjective not, what is the true solution? Specially, are participles bound by, the same laws as adjectives? Is there not a wide difference between the participles transitive and intransitice or passive as to their meaning. with regard to the kind or method of union with the noun? Before an actice participle, which has a verbal sense, is the article so-called ever anything but a relatice demonstrative pronoun? How is the case to be disposed of, when such a praticiple follows a noun which has the article, while the participle omits it? It is alleged, that there is much difference between poetry and prose, the former ravely using the article where it is very common in the latter; are there any assignable limits to this usage, if indeed it actually is such an one? What is the difference as to the use of the article, between earlier and later writers? Have any individual authors preculiarities of their own in the use of it? If so, which of the sacred writers are they? And what are these peculiarities? How does a Chaldaizing tendency in a writer affect his usage of the article? Do difficcnecs of dialect produce discrepancy of usage?
But-manum de tabula. A great portion of these questions remain almost where they
were 1600 years ago, and in vain does the inquisitive philologist seek a satisfactory answer. Who then should venture to hang important conclusions on the insertion or mmission of the article, (which is every day done, however, ly party critics and theologiams). until a great portion at least of these questions is satisfactorily answered? Much is it to be wished for. that such questions may reach the eye of some Roediger or Hupfeld, and rouse them to lring ont a Monogram on this difficult but very inportant subject-more important it may be from the use that is made of reasoning from the supposed principles of the article, than in and of itself. At all events, if these aud the like questions cannot lee answered satisfactorily, then it is very important to know this, and to steer our course accordingly -S.]

$$
\begin{gathered}
\$ 110 \text {. } \\
\text { Connection of the Noun with the Adjective. }
\end{gathered}
$$

1. The adjective which serves to qualify the noun, stands after it, and agrees with it in gender and number; as

Nore 1. Before the noun the adjective that qualifies it is seldom found; and only when it is emplatic, or some peculiar stress is laid upon it; e. g.
 servant, apposition]. Pss 89: 51, [? all the multitudes, the nations, apposition]. Ps. 145: 7, [? The memory of the abundance of thy groodness]. Comp. also Ps. 18: 4. [? $\boldsymbol{H}_{c}$ is to be praised, or, There is one to be praised, I will call upon Jehovah, i. e. he is the one]. Merely poetical are the expressions that follow: אֵפִּerp phe theng ones of the shields, i. e. mighty or most poverful shields, Jol 41: 7, comp. v. 21; also Is. 35: 9, [no ravenous one of the beasts]. Or, instead of the plural for the second
 the poor among men, i. e. the poor, [? intensive = the most wrotched]; Hos. 13: 2, [the sacrificers of men, $=$ sacrificers, or more exactly, men whose business is sacrifice].
Note 2. When fem. nouns, or nouns which incline to this gender (\$ 105, 4), take two adjectives, it is sometimes the case, that only the one which Stauds nearist the noun conforms in gender; e. g. 1 Sam. 15: 9, מְלֹאָּ

 comm. gender, so that both adjectives accord with it]. Ps. 63: 2. For the ground of such a construction, see § 144, n. 1 .
Note 3. In respect to number, it should be noted that the dual takes plural adjectives, [for these have no dual forms] ; e. g. Prov. 6: 17, שיֵֵים -5-iv, haughty eyes. Ps. 18: 28. Job 4: 3, 4. Is. 35: 3. Here also the constructio ad sensum is frequent; for collectives may unite with plurals of any kind, as in 1 Sam. 13: 15. Jer. 28: 4. On the contrary: The so-called Pluralis majestaticus ( $(\$ 106,2 . b)$ takes (for the most part) the singular

also the plural of the adjective joined with the plur. majest., 1 Sam. 17: 26).
2. When an adjective is limited or explained by a noun, that noun is put after it in the Genitive.
E. g. צִּ
 Latin). Is. 19: 10. (Comp. Part., § 132).

Verbal adjectives govern the same case as their verbs; as Deut. 34:9,
 tive.

## 3. Of adjectives as predicates, see $\S 141$ seq.

[Remarks. The adjectives (so-called) adverted to in Note 1, are in reality nouns, and belong to an idiom of another kind than that which is here in question. A great proportion of apparent disagreement between the noun and adjective or participle, as to gender or number, belongs either to nouns of common gender, or to nouns which are collectives, or else to participles or adjectives used as nouns in a collective sense. In all such cases, there is a constructio ad sensum.-As to the principle in Note $\mathbf{1}$, it is so doubtful as to be unsafe for a basis. The amount of the whole matter is, that the common law of the language puts the adjective after the noun; and a very few cases, (where still a sense altogether good, without reversing this law, may be made), cannot be regarded as decisive that the law is ever reversed.-S.]
$\S 111$.
Apposition.

When two nouns, in the same relation of case, are placed together, so that one serves to explain the other, then arises what is called apposition.
 servant-maid, a virgin, Deut. 22: 28 ; תמֵּ meaning is obvious.

Note 1. Two adjectives, (or more), may also be in apposition; in which case the first usually modifies the second; e. g. Lev. 13: 39, nimiñ
 whitish red $=$ pale red.

Note 2. On the other hand, the noun in apposition that qualifies another, is usually put after that other; and only in certain connections does the word in apposition stand first; as a say: king David, king Solomon, etc.). So the Latin also, as Cicero consul.

## § 112. <br> Of the Genitive.

1. Independent of the ancient but defunct ending of the Genitive ( $\S 88$ ), the Hebrew expresses the Gen. relation by placing it after another noun which governs it, or is said to be in the construct state, (see $\$ S 7$ ). When several Genitives follow in immediate succession, they are sometimes expressed by a series of construct forms, or shunned by circumlocution, or by varying the expression.
 10: 12. In the examples above produced, all nouns stand in the const. state even to the last Genitive. Yet there are cases, where the Gen. is subordinate to the main idea and merely descriptive of what an adjective would express, and this Gen. is put in the case absolute, because the Gen. that follows depends on the main idea and not on this subordinate one. So Is. 28: 1, 9: 13. Ps. 68: 22.

Like to this is the rare case, when a noun has immediately after it an adjective, and then a Genitive; as quarry, $1 \mathrm{~K} .6: 7$. The usual arrangement puts the adjective after the two nouns, as etc.
2. The Genitive designates not merely subject, but sometimes object.
 that which they commit; but in Obud. v. 10, brother, i. e. suffered by him. So Prov. 20: 2, אֵיֵּ terror of the
 specting or concerning Sodom, Gen. 18: 20.-Other variations there are, like

3. A connection by a Genitive not unfrequently expresses the same meaning that apposition would express.
 of my people, Jer. 14: 17. Is. 37: 22.
Note 1. Between the Gen. and the noun which precedes it, in some

[^92]rare cases, a vourd is interposed; e. g. in Hos. 14:3. 2 Sam. 1: 9. Job 27: 3, comp. Is. 38: 16. [? All doubtful cases; and it is inconclusive to appeal to them to establish the preceding statement].

Note 2. Proper names with a Genitive following are not frequent; for they are too definite in general to need further limitation. Yet geograplical names not unfrequently take a Gen. for the sake of specification; as אוּר שַּשְׂדִים, Ur of the Chaldces, Gen. 11: 28; Aram of the two streams, i. e. Mesopotamia; and in the like manner mix minn , Jehovah [God] of hosts.

## § 113. <br> Circumscription of the Genitive.

Besides the designation of a Genitive by a noun construct with a following Gen., ( $\$ 87 . \$ 112$ ), there are several paraphrastic modes of designating it; in particular that, where ? is prefixed to a noun sustaining such a relation; for ? properly signifies a belonging or appertaining to anything, and is therefore appropriate to the relation in question. The latter method is accomplished in several ways: viz.
 , לְבָּיָּ, the flock which belonged to her father, Gen. 29: 9. 47: 4. But when several Genitives follow in succession, this same circumlocution is


 Sam. 2: 8. 1 Chron. 11: 10. (In Rablinic, the Gen. is marked by prefixing

(2) By ? simply (without wִư), the Gen. of appertaining to and of pos-
 particular: (a) When the governing noun (const. nomin) should be regarded



 and the same with the ellipsis of one word, לְדָיָד, of David, Ps. 11: 1. 14: 1.


[^93]Tッジ
 of the tribes of the children of Israel，Josh．19：51．Here the two closely united phrases are joined in the way of abs．and const．；while the looser connection is indicated by ？．（Comp．also § 112，1）．（c）When the gov－
 of Ahimelek， 1 Sam．22：30．（The const．state may also be employed，in
 on the 27th day of the month，Gen．8： 11.

## § 114. <br> Further Use of the Construct State．

The Construct State，although it generally serves to indicate the closer comnection of two nouns，in the flow of speech is also employed，in some cases，out of the Gien．relation；viz．

1．Before Prepositions；specially in poctry，and most fre－ quently when the governing noun is a participle．
 （b）Before \}, as E ש：
 Judg．5： 10.

2．Before the relative pronoun；c．g．
3．Before relative clauses without
 explained by Ewald and his school］；אָּ God knows not ； 1 Sam．25：15．Ps．90：15．Comp．§ 121，3．n． 1.

4．Tiven before ：copulative，（although seldom）；as $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ ワゼTー Is．33：6．35：2．51： 21.

5．In a very close connection of speech．
E．g．in the cuse of（for אֲתַּ（for）， 2 Sam．17：22．Zech．11：7．Is．28：4， 16．Comp．the const．state in numerals，such as 13,14 ，etc．，§ 95,2 ．The like in the forms of some adverbs，$\S 98,2, c$ ．
Note．If in most of these instances，the absolute case might be used in－ stead of the construct；so，on the other hand，in certain connections the absolute is employed where we might expect the construct；e．g．（a）In
 it from other places with the name of $\underset{\sim}{\mathcal{E}} \underset{\sim}{\text { ．}}$ ．（See，on the other hand，$\S 112$ ， n．2）．
（b）In some other cases，where the connection is not close enough for a Genitive relation；so that a second noun is put in apposition，or it may be

 trouble, i. e. water with trouble.
 of hosts.

## § 115. <br> Designation of the other Cases.

1. Since the Hebrew has dispensed with the living use of case-endings ( $\$ 88$ ), the question arises: What is the kind of compensation for this, which designates the relations of cases? The Nominative is always and only to be known from the syntactical adaptation. In respect to the Genitive, see § 112 - 114. The Dative is distinguished by the preposition ?; the Ablative, by from, out of, $\exists \mathrm{in}$, on. The Semitae, however, regarded all nouns, in these cases, as Genitives, depending on particles which originally were nouns, and in the const. state. Hence, in Arabic, they have a Genitive ending ; comp. §99, 1.
In respect to the use of to mark the Dative, (which in various resperts occupies the place of our Genitive), see $\S 113,1,2$.
2. The Accusative has frequently an ending ( $\pi_{-}$) where it expresses locality, $(\$ 88,1)$. Otherwise, it is commonly distinguished by the structure of the sentence. Often, however, the prefixed particle, however, is employed only when the noun connected has an article, or is made definite by a Gen. or a suffix; or else is a proper name, [which of itself is definite].
In prose this is predominant usage ; in poetry but little use is made of תא. E. g. Gen. 1: 1, (different usage in Gen. 2: 4). With proper names, Gen. 6: 10. Ex. 1: 11. Rare are the cases where ra stands before indeffinite nouns; but this may be done in more elevated style, [poetic license], where the article also is often omitted in words that
 Ezek. 43: 10. Very seldom in prose, as in 1 Sam. 24: 6. Ex. 2: 1, where, however, the noun is made definite by the connection.*
[^94]
## § 116. <br> Use of the Accusative.

1. The Acc. forms, (1) The object of transitive verbs, § 135. (2) It serves to designate words adverbially used, which are not directly governed by the verb. It is only the last of which we here speak.

The second leading purpose of the Acc. developes itself out of the first; and several constructions which are wont 10 be treated as adverbial, belong in reality to the first category, $\S 135,1$. n. 3. But on this account, the actual use of the $A c c$. in an adverbial way, ought not to be denied. In this way stands the Accusative,
(1) In the designation of place, and as an answer to the question: Whither? after verbs of motion; a and to the question: Where? after verbs of rest. ${ }^{\text {b }}$ Lastly, it designates space and measure. ${ }^{\text {c }}$
 M, rubut to go to Tarshish, 2 Chron. 20: 36. Ps. 134: 2. - (b) Rest :
 door of the tent, Gen. 18: 1. - (c) Measure: 'The waters increased up-

In the two first cases, specially in the first, the ending ( $n_{-}$) is often attached to the Acc.; see §88, 2. The relation which the first expresses, $(t 0$, toxard), might also be expressed by z , (when persons are named, this is the predominant mode of expression); and the second relation (in, at) might be expressed liy $\geq$. But inasmuch as these relations are expressible without the prepositions, it is not necessary to supply them where they are wauting, in analyzing a sentence.
2. Thie Ace designates time, both when, and how long.
(a) When; as $=\boldsymbol{r}-\mathrm{n}$, the day, on the day, at that time, or on this day,
as in Greek the oblique pronouns airove, airç̀, airon'; ipsi, ipsum; Germ. dasselbe; so that the II (1). E": than the simple Top oiparov. That תṣ also expresses the Nom. is not unsupposable, and inleed this appears to he actually the case ; as in Mag. 2: 17. 2 K. 18: 30, (lacking in the prutelled passage, Is. 36: 15) ; perhap's also in Josh. 22: 17. Dan. 9: 13. It may he regarded as a subordinate ferns. in other cases reckoned here, viz. 2 Sum. 11: 25. Neh. 9:32, and even 1 Sim. 17:34; and with the Pessiue, it is to be reckoned as Accusative, see $\$ 140,1, a$. In Ezek. $47: 17,18,19,-5$ stands for $-\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{T}$, if indeed the text is not to be so amended.

 it) they rebelled; 1 Sam. 21:9 (Kethibh),
 days, Ex. 20: 9.
3. The Acc. is employed where we use the expressions: $A c$ cording to the measure of or proportion of, in respect to, in regard to, and other adverlial designations of ideas.
 be greater; 2 Sam. 21: 20, 'four and twenty
 served God ín with one neck,' i. e. with one mind, [or, with united effort]. Sometimes a Genitive is put after this adverbial Acc., which then
 1: 5 , 'He brought offerings Here also we may rank such cases as the following: מִּשְׁנֶח כֶסֶמ, double as to silver, Gen. 43: 15; so Ruth 2: 17, אֵרקָּ שְׂערים, an ephah as to barley ;

For kindred cases of the Acc. connected with a verb, see § 135. § 136. The use of numerous substantives for adverbs, stands connected also with this; see § $98,2 . b$.
Note. The like relation to time, place, etc., can a noun have, in regard to its meaning, if it stands connected with $\supseteq$ (as, agrecably to, after the, manner of ; but then only is to be regarded as in the Acc., and the noun

 of stone the water conceals itself,' i. e. in freezing; Job 30: 14; 38: 14, อַּ בַּ as in a dream. - (b) As to time: = afine the manner of the time, as on the day, Is. 9: 3. Hos. 2: 5; Hos. 2: 17, as in the days of; Hos. 9:9. 12: 10. Amos 9: 11. Is. 51:9. (c) Other relations; Job 28: 5, שׁׂ after the manner of fire $=$ as of fire ; Is. 1: 25, I will melt out thy dros า住 as with alkali. - Seldom is a preposition inserted after thus em


Finally, that a noun with may indicate, as to meaning, the Acc. of object, and the relation of the Nom., is evident of itself.
$\S 117$.
Comparative and Superlative by Circumlocution.

1. The Comparative is expressed by object with which comparison is made.
E. g. 1 Sam. 9: 2, ロヘָּ 18, ְִִּ pinp, sweeter than honey; - and in like way after a verb of
 people.
 preference over, Ecc. 2: 13. Deut. 14: 2), which the Hebrew regarded as a kind of distinguishing or separating from. (Comp. the Latin Ablative, in a comparison; also the etymology of eximius, egregius; also the Home-
 signification more than attaches itself to the ground-meaning from any thing. Comp. with this the use of 3 in comparisons, Job 23: 2. Ps. 137: 6.

The correlate comparatives, greater, smaller, are expressed merely by great, small, Gen. 1: 16.
2. The many designations of the Superlative all come to this, viz. that the positive form is employed, which is either marked by the article, or by a following Genitive, so as to show that the quality in question belongs, in the way of eminence, to a particular individual, etc.; (comp. le plus grand).
E. g. 1 Sam. 17: 14, David was הַקָּ the small one, (i. e. the smallest), and the three large ones, etc., i. e. oldest or largest ones; Gen. 42: 13. So Jon.


A kind of superlative in a noun of quality is the phrase most holy place, lit. the holiness of holinesses, i. e. what is peculiarly holy among other holy things.

## § 118. <br> Syntax of the Numerals.

1. The numbers from 2-10 are properly nouns, which, however, admit an adverbial use, $(\S 95,1)$, and may be joined in three different ways with the noun to be numbered; viz.
(a) They may be in the const. state before the noun, (which latter is in
 in which case the noun to be numbered is put in apposition and in the Acc.;
 is placed after the noun ; e. g. . This last method is found in the later books, which also place adverbs in a similar position. In like way with the preceding methods, מאָּ שָׁנָּ and ,
2. The numbers from 2-10 have, (with few exceptions, $2 \mathrm{~K} .22: 1$ ), the plural number joined with them. 'The tens, on

The contrary, (i. e. $20-90$ ), when they precede, have normally the singular (in the Acc.); when they are in apposition with the other noun, they take the plural.
 towns. On the contrary wana twenty ells, 2 Chron. 3: 3 seq. But the plural may be used in the first case, (Ex. 36: 24, 25); yet not the singular in the second.
The numbers from 11-19 have the singular (Acc.) only in certain gene-
 hundert Mann, sechzig Pfund); e.g. ニทn win win in in fourteen days, Ex. 12: 6; otherwise the plural is demanded by these composite numbers. In this case, the later books usually put the numeral after the other noun, 1 Chron. 4: 27. 25: 5.
3. In numbers composed of tens and units, like 21, 62, etc., the thing enumerated may stand after the numeral, and be in the sing. Acc.; or stand before and take the plural; or it may be repeated and stand in the plural after the smaller number, and in the sing. after the larger one.

 12: 4. 23: 1.
4. The Ordinals over ten have no form which distinguishes them from the numerals, and of course the cardinals are used therefor; which either stand before the object enumerated, or are placed after it in the Genitive.

 repeated, Gen. 7: $11.2 \mathrm{~K} .13: 10$. In reckoning the days of the month, and the years, the cardinal numbers from $1-10$ are used; e. g. בִּ in the year 2; בְּשְ in in the year 3, 1 K. 15: 25. $2 \mathrm{~K} .18: 1$;
 Gen. 8: 13. Lev. 23: 32.

Note 1. The numerals take the article, when, besides their connection with a noun, they stand related to a preceding subject; e. g. הַ, the two,
 is to be explained by $\$ 109,1$.

Note 2. Certain nouns, which relate to measure and time, are commonly omitted after numerals; e. g. 5 .ֶֶֶ
 six [ephahs] of barley. In 1 Sam. 17: 17, we have
of bread. So min is omitted, Gen. 8:5; and שֶ่า in 8: 13. The number
 27: 18.
5. Distributive numbers are expressed by doubling or repeating the cardinals.
E. g. פin fem. (lit.

 thrice; and in the form 5nּ, as in Num. 10: 4. And in like manner, by
 21: 19.
$\$ 119$.
Use of the Personal Pronoun.

1. When a personal pronoun is the subject of a sentence, the copula (the verb to be) is usually omitted, $\S 141$.
 [are] we, Gen. 42:11; הmw
 [is] it, Gen. 41: 26.
2. The pronoun of the third person often serves as a copula between subject and predicate, and takes the place, in a certain measure, of the verb of existence.
E. g. Gen. 41: 26, The seven beautiful kine [are] they; Ecc. 5: 18, זֶ, this - a gift of God [is] it.

Sometimes the pronoun of the third person serves as a copula, when the subject is the first or second person.
 reference to the predicate and makes it prominent, lit. thou [art] he, my Fing ; Is. 37: 16. Neli. 9: 6, 7. Deut. 32: 39. See in the Chaldee, Ez. 5: 11.
3. The fundamental rule $(\$ 33,1)$ is, that the separate pronouns are in the Nom. case, and the suffix ones in the oblique cases. But to this there is an exception. This is, when the personal suffix pronoun in the oblique case needs 10 be doubled, for the sake of intensity or emphasis, (like me, me-thine, thine), then the repetition is made by the pronoun in its separate form; and this form is to be regarded as being in the same case as the suffix, with which it stands in apposition.
E. g. So in the $\boldsymbol{A} c c$. suffix of the verb trausitive, Gen. 27:34,
bless me, even me ; Prov. 22: 19. More frequent is the Genitive, juined with a Gen. suffix; as 1 K. 21: 19, 23: 15. Ps. 9: 7. In like manner is the separate pronoun used, when in apposition with a suffix governed by a preposition, (i. e. a suffix in the Gen.,



 Gen. 10: 21.
4. The suffix of the verb is properly alrvays in the Accusative, $(\$ 33,2 . a . \S 57)$, and the $A c c$. of the pronoun is most usually expressed in this way. (See note). Still in a few passages, on the ground of a breviloquence which is hardly normal, the suffix is also in the Dative.
 fit. Job 31: 18, בְּ , he [the orphan] grew up for me, as for a father. Ezek. 29: 3, comp. v. 9.

Note. The Acc. of the pronoun must be expressed by cases: (a) When the pronoun stands first, and is required to be emphatic; e. g. Num. 22: 33, , a double pronominal Acc. connected with it, and only one can be expressed by a verbal-suffix; e. g. 2 Sam. 15: 25, הִרֵּנִּ אֹתוֹ, he will show me it. But where emphasis in a pronoun is required, it may be separated from the verb, and united with capable of standing by itself; e. g. Gen. 4: 14, ,

5. The suffixes of nouns, (which are in the Gen., $\S 33,2 . b$, and take the place of possessive pronouns*), like other Genitives ( $\S 112,2$ ), stand related not merely to subject, but also to object.
[The first needs no illustration, it being common everywhere]. The second is according to the following tenor: which I do, but) violence done to me, or against me, Jer. 51: 35; 4กָָר?, (not his fear, but) fear of him or on account of him.

[^95]6. When two nouns, one in the const. and the other in the Gen., are so connected that they make one composite idea, the suffix which belongs to the whole, is appended to the second or Gen. noun, (comp. the parallel case of the article, $\S 109,1$ ). Particularly is this the usage, when the second noun expresses quality and supplies the place of an adjective, $(\$ 104,1)$.


Rarely, on the other hand, do such cases occur as the following; viz. Ezek. 16: 27, nę̣ 8. [? Is not ager a fem. abstract, and in apposition with The, or a predicate anarthrous?]
Note 1. A kind of incorrectness, (probably derived from the language in popular use and transferred to writing), is found in masculine pronouns, which refer to fem. nouns, as Gen. 41:23. Ex. 1:21; and vice versa, fem. pronouns to masc. nouns, as Deut. 5: 24, (mx. thou, fem. applied to Israel); 2 Sam. 4: 6. [?].

Note 2. The $\boldsymbol{A} c c$. of the pronoun, as object of the verb, is often omitted where it may be easily and obviously supplied by the reader; e. g. it, in Ex. 19: 25, her, Gen. 24: 12.
Note 3. Pleonastic is it, when the suffix-pronoun precedes the noun to which it relates, and then the noun is repeated, being put in apposition

 is of like nature, before the final clause is omitted; but in Josh. 1: 2 is supplied.

Note 4. In some cises the force of the pronominal suffix is so weakened, that it is almost imperceptible; e. g. in "צֶדֹדֹ my lord, (lit. my lords, § 106 , 2. b); then, next, this form was used barely in addresses to God, (comp. in Ps. 35: 23); finally it was applied without reference to the pronoun, and $=$ the Lord.* So in $\underset{\substack{\text { ™. }}}{ }$, (lit. in his connections $=$ he, it, together); as , Ex. 19: 8, all the people together or unitedly. The suffix meaning is so obsolete, that the word (although it has a third pers. suff.) is
 $1 \mathrm{K} 3:$.18 , comp. 1s. 41: 1 . So after the second person, Is. 45: 20. Like to this, is: Hear, ye people, ज? all of them = all, Mic. 1: 2.

[^96]
## § 120. <br> Demonstrative and Interrogative Pronouns.

1. The pronoun of the third person, fem. nh, han, (he, she, they), may be connected with nouns [as a pronoun-adjective]; and in this case it takes the article, pro-
 day. (See exception, in § 109, 2.b).
The demonstrative rֶ is distinguished from 손, as oĩios is from citós. nr refers to an object present or near, 샌 to something already mentioned or well known ; (comp. art. § 107). Judg. 7:4 makes this quite clear: 'Of whomsocver I shall say to thee: This one (זֶה) shall go with thee, he (החה) shall go with thee; and of whom I shall say: This one ( with thee, he (אin) shall not go with thee.' So Ps. 20:8, Hese = oĩto, and
 time when one is speaking, (Gen. 26: 33). On the other hand, the time of which the writer had been speaking, Gen. 15: 18. 26: 32; or of which the prophet had been prophesying, Is. 5: 30. 7: 18, 20), and of which he continues to speak.
2. From the demonstrative $\pi$, comes $n$, , tr, itative $=$ -获, (like the German der for welcher), specially in poetry.
E. g. Ps. 104: 8, 'To the place, זֶ, which thou hast founded for them.' Sometimes merely as a sign of relation, [like wew $]$, § 121,1 ;


Aiderbially employed is $\pi$, (a) For there, as
 why there. (b) In relation to time; when it designates now, E , twice now, Gen. 27: 36.
3. The interrogative pa, who, may relate to the plural; as
 in Ex. 10: 8. It may be applied to things, but it is when persons are comprised; as שִּ שְּבֶ, who is Shechem? i. e. the Shechemites.
See Judg. 9: 28. Gen. 33: 8. Moreover, $\quad$ ? may be in the Genitive, as nan , the daughter of whom? Gen. 24: 23.-[Still further does usage go]; for $\stackrel{\square}{\square}$ and $n \stackrel{\sim}{c}$, laying aside their interrogative force, may mean any one, any thing, Job. 13: 13. For the last, the language has a word (המnom), which is composed of
§ 121.

## Relative Pronoun, and Relative Clauses.

1. The pronoun אֲטֶּ frequently serves as the mere sign of relation, which gives a relative meaning to nouns, pronouns, and adverbs.
 nưothence, cases of who, which, etc., as follows:
 , , to whom.


 צ: wherefrom.
N. B. The Acc. which is also expressed simply by

Note 1. In this way can the Hebrew make even the first and second person a relative in oblique cases; which cannot be done in many languages; e. g. Gen. 45: 4, wix wix Num. 22: 30, אֲגֶּ ; Hos. 14: 4. Only in the first person can the German imitate this, as der Ich, die Wir; [while in English we can say: I who do, thou who doest, etc., as well as he who docs.] In the first two cases, who merely indicates relation.
Note 2. The word wֶֻׁ is usually separated, by intervening words, from
 Only now and then are the two words connected, 2 Chron. 6: 11.
2. Before whe pronoun he or any one, (for which the Hebrew has no specific word, $\$ 129,2$ ), is often to be supplied in translating; as in Latin is before qui.
 [that] which they heard not. This omission takes place in nearly all cases where a preposition stands before which, in interpreting, must be joined with the pronoun to be supplied; but the relative itself is to be translated in the manner that the following clause may require; e. g. לַאּשׁׁ
 to which or what, and therefore like to as. So also אֵּ אֲּ , him who, or those who, or that which.
Rare are the examples, where the preposition before afferts the relative itself, and corresponds with our inode of expression; as


N. B. Not unfrequently the ellipsis to be supplied, as stated above, consists of a designation of place or time ; e. g. בֵאֲֶׁ", from [the time], since.
3. The pronoun אֲשֶׁׁר can, in all the given cases of its use, fall away, i. e. be omitted; (as in English: The woman I love; the book I read) ; when the relation has no visible sign, and is known only by the fact, that the clause is of a relative nature. This is often the case, and above all in poetry, when would stand,
(a) As a pronoun, in the Nom. or Accusative. E. g. Gen. 15: 13,
 all [which] belonged to him, comp. v. 5, which inserts the wive . Ecc. 10: 5, comp. 6: 1 , where אֲשֶׁשׁ is omitted.*
(b) As a sign of relation; e.g. Ps. 32: 2, 'Happy the man, ニن்n’
 lacking which would point out relation in "'2]. Job 3: 3. Ex. 18:20. Frequently it is omitted after designations of time, where the meaning would
 at a time [when] their corn and wine increase; Jer. 36: 2.
(c) Even when it includes the pronoun he, whocver, etc.; e. g. Job 24: 19, 'Sheol takes away so, but even when involves along with he or whosoever also the idea of
 have prepared for him; comp. Ex. 23: 20.

Note 1. When the pronoun he, whoever, is to be supplied in the Gen., then the foregoing noun stands in the construct state; e.g. Ex. 4: 13,
 חinc , the beginning [of that, which] Jehovah spake; Ps.81:6, א่ว M, the language [of those, whom] I knew not ; Ps. 65: 5. Lam. 1: 14. Jer. 48: 36. Comp. § 114, 3.

Note 2. Relative clauses, instead of being attached by אֲשֶׁר, are some-
 there was no helper to him , i. e. to whom there was etc., $=$ i\} . . .

[^97]
## § 122.

Manner of expressing certain Pronouns, for which the Heb. has no appropriate Forms.

1. The reflexive pronouns, myself, thyself, himself, are expressed, (a) By the conjugations Niphal and Hithpael. (b) By the pronoun of the third person, in case of a connection with a noun or preposition.
E. g. Gen. 22: 3, Abraham took the two lads ins with him or himself;
 with herself;' (old German: Er machte ihm einen Rock, ihm for sich); Jer. 7: 19. Ezek. 34: 2, 8, 10.
(c) By circumlocution with nouns, particularly with
 herself; Gen. 18: 12.
2. The pronouns he, it, that, etc., in all the cases sing. and plur., are usually omitted before - w, (comp. 121, 2). But very rarely are they expressed by the interrogative; e.g. ©ֶּ , th at which, Ecc. 1: 9. 3: 15.
Note 1. The indefinite any one, every one, in relation to persons, is ex-
 Ps. 87: 5. In relation to persons and things, by bs, usually without the Article, (§ 109, 1). Once more; by doubling, as and every morn-


Note 2. By whe , or its equivalent אָּדז, is expressed the idea of some one, some person; Ex. 16: 29. Cant. 8: 7 ; אָָם, Num. 1: 2. The idea, something, is expressed by
Note 3. Self, the same, the very, in relation to persons and things, is expressed by to things, there are other words sometimes employed; e. g. Eyy, bone, body, (but when used for self, etc., the tropical sense of essence, substance, is chosen); as than a צֶuy, in his very prosperity itself, Job 21: 23.
The Arabian expresses the idea of self by circumlocution, viz. using eye, soul, spirit ; the Rabbinic, by by ๗ֵin heard. So in Euglish sometimes: My body, for myself; in Midd. High German min lip, din lip.
3. One, another, the one and the other, is expressed by a

or רֵ (friend) ; and so, in the feminine, by connected with (sister) or (friend). Both of these are also employed in respect to objects without life. E. g. Gen. 13: 11, 'And they


 days, Dan. 8: 27; घשָׁ? , some years, Dan. 11: 6, 8. Sometimes this is expressed by

## CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

§ 123.
Use of the Tenses in general.
In consequence of the paucity of definite forms to mark the Heb. tenses as absolute and relative, ( $\S 40-48$ ), it cannot be otherwise than that a manifold meaning of them should be the result.

In the mean time, one must not suppose that the two tenses of the Hebrew are altogether undefined and destitute of any rule. On the contrary, each of them has its own defined sphere; as has been generally said already under $\S 47$ above. The Perfect expresses what is past and completed; and this, not only when it is actually past, but also when it is present or future, but is regarded by the mind as accomplished, inasmuch as one attributes to it the same certainty as to that which has already taken place, or arranges it as something earlier in contrast with something that is afterwards to follow.

The Imperfect, (or Infectum, the incomplete, the Future), expresses that which is incomplete ; and [as nearly related to this] that which is in continuance, in progress, (even in time past), that which is becoming so or so, or which is to be completed in future. It is also in particular employed, in a modified form ( $\$ 48$ ), to express the relations of the Optative, the Jussive, and the Subjunctive. Finally, we must add to all this, the peculiarity of the Heb., already mentioned in $\S 48 b$, by means of which the

Vav consecutive joins the Imperf. to the Perf., and vice versá. More special rules will be developed in the sequel.
Erroneous is the notion, that the so called Imperfect and Perfect are not actual tenses, and originally comprise no expression of the relations of time, but only determine the differences of mode. Much rather does the distinction apply, which Varro makes in the Latin Grammar, viz. that of Actio perfecta and Actio infecta, i. e. that of action complete and incomplete.*

It is easy to produce examples of the direct contrast between the Perf.

 $\boldsymbol{I}$ will bring it about ; I formed the plan and I will exccute it. Deut. 32: 21. Nah. 1: 12.
$\$ 124$.
Use of the Perfect.

1. In itself and appropriately, the Perfect stands for time past, absolute and perfect, (Praeteritum perfectum).
 thou done (כיצּ) this? And so vs. 14, 17, 22. Hence in the narration of past things, Gen. 1: 1, God created. Gen. 4: 1. 29: 17. Job 1: 1, There was. 2: 10. In this last case, (i. e. that of narration), the Imperf. very frequently annexes itself to the Perf., by a Vav consecutive, § 126. b. 1.

## 2. For the Pluperfect.


 27: 30. 31: 20. Jon. 1: 5.
3. For the abstract Present of our language; where, (a) It designates some long existing and still continuing state or quality, (reaching even to the present).
 4: 9. דָּ I am upright, Joh 34: 5; mita thou art great, Ps. 104: 1; ; small, Gen. 32: 11.

[^98](b) A continued, repeated, already existing action; hence often in general assertions relative to experience.
E. g.
 not. Ps. 10: 3. 119: 30, 40.
N. B. Here, in the domain of our Present, the Perf. and Imperf. of the Hebrew meet, the one or the other being employed, according as the speaker conceives of an action or state expressed by the verb, as having already existed, as still continuing, or perhaps even now completed, or considers those as something which is taking its rise, continuing, or perhaps speedily about to make its entrance, $(\$ 125,2)$.
[Of course the two tenses, when occupying this ground come very
 13, and אוּk cases the Perf. and Imperf. are often ranged together [in a like sense]; e. g. Is. 5: 12. Prov. 1: 22. Job 3: 17, 18.
4. Even to the future does the Perfect relate, namely, in protestations and assurances, where the will or mind of the speaker regards an action as performed, or as good as accomplished.
[In English, we frequently resort to the Present tense in order to express the like views. Anticipation regards future things as present, and speaks of thein as already taking place, or as having taken place.] In Hebrew, even the language of contracts, or that which is promissory in its nature, speaks of things as done, or as being done ; e. g. Gen. 23: 11, , וֹñ I give to thee the field, etc., [i. e. I will give, etc.]; v. 13, I give (y) money for the field, etc.; [which shows that a thing can be spoken of either as already accomplished, or as now in the act of accomplishing, or as speedily and with certainty to be accomplished]. Specially are such expressions employed, when it is God who makes the promises, Gen. 1:29. 15: 18. 17:20; and elsewhere it is found in the language of assurances, viz. when God is spoken of as about to do a thing ; e. g. Ps. 31: 6, O God, hast redeemed me. [The principle is obvious. The assurances of God that this or that shall be done, etc., make it certain that it will be done. And when Abraham speaks (as above) of his giving money, or of having given it, (for we may translate in either way), he expects to inspire as much confidence in his promise, as though it had been actually performed.] Hence,

Specially in prophecy, things yet to come are everywhere,
and [times without number], spoken of as already having taken place.
E. g. Is. 9: 1, 'The people who are walking in darkness, $1 \times$ ָ, see or have seen a great light,' etc.; Is. 5: 13, 'Therefore my people nș wander forth as exiles;' Is. 5: 14, 17, 25, 26. 11: 1, 2, 4, 6, 10, [et passim]. Even in these cases, [as well as in narration], the Imperf. alternates with the Perfect ; see in Is. V. Comp. No. 6 below.
In Arabic the Perfect, with the particle $\underset{\sim}{\text { Pr as an intensive, is employed }}$ in strong assurances, and the like. One says: I have already given this to you $=\mathbf{I}$ shall certainly and assuredly give it. [In Greek, on all sides, in Homer, Plato, Demosthenes, etc. the same idiom is common. Future occurrences are spoken of in the Aorist, to denote assurance or certainty that this or that will take place. See proofs in abundance, in Kühner's Ausfuihr. Gr. Gramm. $\S 443,2$. The IIebrew idiom has nothing strange or unusual in it, with regard to this matter.-S.]
Very naturally is this language of assurance transferred to wishes or strong desircs that this or that may happen. So the chief butler of Pha-
 kindness and remembered me, for thou wilt, etc. The makes the wish here very plain. In Arabic, also, the Perf. is employed to express wishing and besecching. So in Job 21: 16, 'The counsel of the wicked, רחקחק שֶּ -be it far from me,' lit. it has removed far from me.
5. In respect to the relative tenses, the Perfect marks those in which what is past is the leading idea; e. g. it designates,
(a) The Imperfect of the Subjunctive; (which may also be expressed by the Imperf., $\S 125,5)$.
 we should have been like to Gomorrha; Job 3: 13.
(b) The Pluperfect of the Subjunctive.
 would that we had died, (h) with Imperf. would mean: would that we
 if I had not been, should I be.
(c) The Paulo-post Future or Futurum exactum.
E. g. Is. 4: 4, אx, when [the Lord] shall have washed avoay, lit. has washed away; Is. 6: 11. Gen. 43: 14, בֵ, in case I shall be bereaved, then am I bereaved; (an expression of resignation in a doubtful case).
6. Perfect in connection. In all the cases thus far, the Perfect has been considered independently of its connection
with other foregoing verbs. But not less various are its meanings, when it is connected by a Vav (4) with preceding verbs, (Vav consecutive). In such a case, it attaches to itself the time and mode of the preceding verb, and also throws forward the tone, see $\S 48 b, 3$. In such a case it stands,
(a) Most frequently for the future, when an Imperf. (Fut.) precedes.
 he will make prosperous thy way, lit. and then he prospers thy way. Judg. 6: 16.1 Sam. 17:32, [passive]. The future here goes over into quiet description by means of the Perfect; and that Perfect is explained by the principle developed in No. 4 above.
(b) Present Subjunctive, when the preceding form of the Imperf. has this meaning, (according to $\$ 125,3$ ).
 his hand and take and eat, lit. 'and then he takes and eats.' Gen. 32: 12. 19: 19. Num. 15: 40. Is. 6: 10.
(c) For the Imperative, when the Imper. precedes.
E. g. Gen. 6: 21, קַ, take for thyself and collect together, lit. and then thou dost collect; Gen. 27: 43, 44. As in lett. $a$. above, the command here goes over into a description of what is to be done. Sometimes the Vav ( $(\mathfrak{\eta})$ is separated from its Perfect, Ps. $22: 22$.
(d) For the past or the present, when either a preceding Perf. or Imperf. has such a sense.
Note 1. The Perfect, with Vav consecutive, may relate to the future, not ouly when a future verb precedes, but in case there is any other proper indication of the future. E.g. Ex. 16: 6, 7, צֶּרחב, at evening ye
 1 Sam. 20: 18.
The usage goes still further, and extends even to cases where there are no indications of the future ; for the Perf. with Vav may stand, (a) Where a reason or ground of a thing is given; or (b) Where a condition is described; then may follow the Perfect in the sense of a future, or Imper. For the letter (a), see Num. 4: 14, 24, Because another spirit is in him,
 this construction take place ; as Gen. 20: 11, 'There is no fear of God in the land, Comp. Ps. $25: 11$, 'For thy name's sake, سָּקְְּ解, so wilt thou forgive,' or so forgive.
For the letter (b), above: Gen. 33: 10, ‘If I have found favour, minnel? , then
take, etc.' Even without any conditional particle in the sentence, ( $\$ 152$, 4. a); Gen. 44: 22, 'Should he forsake his father, r-w then will he die;' Gen. 28: 29. 42: 38. So Is. 6: 7, 'See! this has touched thy lips, "סָז', and so departs, etc.'

To a great variety of declarations in the present, are appended clanses beginning with the Perfect and Vav.consec.; e. g. Judg. 13: 3, 'Thou
 9: 8, 'Here is the fourth of a shekel, יְִיָּ and I will give it.' - So in respect to wish or desire; as Ruth 3: 9, 'I am Ruth, fore, etc.'-So as to questions; Ex. 5: 5, 'Many are the people of the land, Encix 25: 10, 11.

Note 2. A very frequent form of prophetic language is shall come to pass, (like יחיחה, and it was, in narration); and this is used, not only when Futures precede, but also when they do not, (see Note 1); specially when some assignation of time is added; as Is. 7: 18, 厄in .

## § 125.

Use of the Imperfect.
Although the meaning of the Imperfect is almost more extensive than that of the Perfect, yet has the language here attained to a more defined expression of the modal relations, by means of abridging and lengthening the form of the Imperfect $(\$ 48)$, for the sake of marking the passive and Hortative ( $\$ 126$ ). Vav consecutive, moreover, is here employed in a very comprehensive and significant way, ( $\$ 126 \mathrm{~b}$ ). Yet the abbreviation in question, as has already been remarked, is not orthograplically perceptible in all the forms; and besides this, there are variations of usage, so that in almost all cases where the abridged form of the Imperfect is employed, the usual form also occurs instead of it.

The Imperfect forms, in general, the direct contrast of the Perfect, and accordingly designates that which is incomplete, that which is becoming so or so, or that which is future. It designates also that which is in a continued state, which is progressive, in every department of time, even of the past; see $\$ 47$. n. Accordingly it stands:

1. For the Future simply.
 narration, the Imperfect is used for that which is future in respect to a point
of time in the past; as 2 K. $3: 27$, 'He took the first born, ָּק"? who should reign, etc.?
2. As frequently for the Present.
 Gen. 37: 15.

In particular does the Imperf. designate abiding state or circumstunces, which now exist, and will continue to be as they are. (The Perfect designates the same, also, but less frequently, $\$ 124,3 . a . b)$. Consequently general truths may be designated by the Imperfect.

 15: 20, 'A wise son $=\underset{\tau}{ }$ Msene will make glad-makes glad-his father;' and so very often in Job and Proverbs.

Often, in the same formula, borh Perf, and Imperf. occur together; yet not exactly in the same sense; e. g. Job 1: 7, אum

3. T'o designate a series of relations, which in the Latin are expressed by the Subjunctive, specially the Subj. Present, viz. the future, or what wili take place according to our opinion, or in accordance with a dependency on other circumstances. Consequently,
(a) For the Subjunctive, preceded by such particles as that, that not, (ut, ne), viz.
 38: 16, 'What dost thou give me , דֶּ , that thou wilt come to me? Deut. 4: 1, , mancon that ye may live. In like manner after ; e. g.

(b) For the Optative ; in which case the prolonged and abridged forms are peculiarly appropriate ( $\$ 126,1.2$ ). Often with the particle ${ }_{\mathrm{N}}^{\mathrm{N}} \cdot \dagger$

 speak now!

[^99]But still, the full normal form is sometimes employed, even where an abridged form exists; e. g. Gen. 1: 9, mnำ, And let (the dry land) ap-

(c) For the Imperative ; and in negative commands (forbidding) with $火 火, ~ i t ~ i s ~ a l w a y s ~ e m p l o y e d . ~$
E. g. Ex. 20: 13, seq., לֹ לֹ , thou shalt not kill, etc. When the negative לx is used, it expresses warning, or a wish, or opinion, that this or that should unt take place; as Gen. 46: 3, xרָ Jub 3: 4. 6: 7.

Here, moreover, in connection with $\mathfrak{z}$, properly belongs the Jussive, and then the abridged form of the Imperf. is in place. In like manner is it employed for expressing the third person of the Imper.; and for the Imper. of the Pussice, so far as peculiar forms therefor are wanting in the language, ( $\$ 46$ ).
 Ex. 35: 2. Comp. § 126, 2.
(d) For the so called Potential mode, where can, may, must, are to be expressed.
 who can tell? Gen. 43: 7, דְדידע צִּב, could we certainly know?
4. Into the sphere of the Past the Imperf. sometimes goes; principally in the following cases:

 was not; Jer 1: 5, x3: 7, where the Perf. and Imperf. are in the same sentence).
(b) Very often, when continued, constantly repeated, actions or usages, and customary action, are spoken of; (like the case of the Imperfect in Latin and French). The repetition or customary doing of a thing stands connected of course with the idex of something inromplete, something which is still in the progress of development ; and this belongs to the Imperfect.
E. y. Job 1: 5, so nem did Job continually ; 22: 6, 7, 8. 29: 12, 13. Judg. 14: 10. 1 Sam. 1: 7. 1 K. 5: 25. Is. 10: 6. [6: 2 bis] . Ps. 32: 4. $42: 5$. [al. saepe].

[^100](c) Sometimes to designate actions which are temporary and soon completed, where one would naturally expect the Perfect; at least this is the case among the poets; just as we make use of the Present in an animated description of the past.
E. g. Job 3: 3, 'Let the day perish, 住 wanc in which I was born;' Job 3: 11, 'Why did I not die, nیָ, from the womb?' Job 4: 12, 15, 16. 10: 10, 11.
5. For the Latin Imperf. Subjunctive, especially in conditional sentences, (Modus conditionalis) ; and thus, both in the fore-clause and in the after-clause.


 otherwise]; Job 10: 18, ' I should have died, אֻּוְע, and no eye would have seen me;' Job 3: 16. 6: 14. In these cases, morenver, the shortened form of the Imperf. often occurs.

## § 126.

Use of the prolonged and apocopate Imperfect; (Hortative and Jussive).

1. The Imperfect prolonged by $\Pi_{-}^{-}$, (Hortative), is used almost exclusively in the first person, and designates an effort or endeavour, directed toward the accomplishment of some action. It is employed,
(a) To designate the excitement of one's self, or the expression with emphasis of a determination to do something.
 3, , तTְ
 now and see! Gen. 32: 21.
(b) In the expression of a wish or request for liberty to do a thing.
E. g. Deut. 2: 27, אָּבְּדָ, Suffer me to pass through! Num. 20: 17,

(c) To express a determination or design; and commonly joined to an Imper. by a Vav consecutive.
E. g. Gen. 27: 4, Bring it hither, Gen. 29: 21. 42: 34. Job 10: 20.
(d) More rarely in conditional sentences, with an if either expressed or understood.
E. g. Job 16: 6. 11: 17. Ps. 139: 8.
(e) Besides these cases, it is often used after Vav consecutive ; see § 48 b. 2.
Note. In Jeremiah, this form stands for almost every kind of intensity and emphasis. Jer. 3: 25. 4: 19, 21. 6: 10.
2. The apocopate Imperfect (the Jussive), stands principally, (a) In the expression of commands and wishes.
E. g. Gen. 1: 24, אnּun means: it shall produce, or it produces, Is. 61: 11); joined to the Imper. by !, (No. 1. c above), Ex. 8: 4, הַּחְ make supplication to Jehovah, Judg. 6: 30. 1 K. 21: 10.
(b) In prohibitions; as Deut. 9: 26. Job 15: 3.
(c) Frequently in conditional sentences, (as predominantly in the Arabic), and both in the fore-clause and after-clause.
E. g. Ps. 45: 12, "אָּחּ; 104: 20,

(d) After Vav consecutive, § 48 b. 2.

Since the jussive form, in a great number of cases, is not orthographically distinguished from the common form ( $\$ 48,4$ ), it may be difficult, in some cases, to discover the exact meaning. At all events, the apocopate form occurs among the poets, in some cases where the common form would make a sense equally good. The Jussive expresses more of a subjective feeling, a may, might, should, ought, according as the meaning and connection of each passafe requires.

## § 126 b. <br> Use of the Imperfect with Vav consecutive.

1. This form, (e. g. beren $_{2} \$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{No}$. 2), stands only when connected with a preceding form. In general, narration begins with the Perfect, and then goes over into the Imperf. with Vav consecutive; and this is the usual form of historic representation.
 concrived and gave birth to Cain,' etc.; Gen. 6:9, 10 seq. 10:9, 10, $15,19$. 11: 12, 13-15, 27, 28. 14: 5 seq. 15: 1, 2. 16: 1, 2. 21: 1 seq. 24: 1, 2. 25: 19, 20 seq. 36: 2-4. 37: 2.
N. B. The Perfect which must precede, is not always expressed, but sometimes merely impli,d. E. g. Gen. 11: 10, 'Shem [was] one hundred
 in the following sentence: 'On the third day, , eyes' $=\boldsymbol{\pi}$ 18. 6: 1 , al. saepe.

In case of a connection of events with those of the preceding narration, the Imperf. with Vav consec. may be, and often is, employed; specially is this the case with the transitive formula

E. g. Gen. 11: 1. 14: 1. 17: 1. 22: 1. 26: 1. 27: 1. 12: 1, And God said, Minn marig. Predominant is this usage, when a limitation of time is introduced; as in Gen. 22: 1, 'And it came to pass (יִיחי? Gen. 20: 8. 39: 13, 15, 18, 19. Judg. 16: 16, 25. See the numerous cases in Ges. Thesaurus, p. 372. In the same proportion do we find in respect to the Future, § 124, n. 2.
N. B. In particular does this form occur, (a) After a fore-clause; e. g. 1 Sam. 15: 23, 'Because thou hast rejected the word of the Lord, 7opreng, so will he reject thee; Gen. 33: 10. So after $=$ =when ; Job 4: 5. (b) After a noun absolute; e. g. $1 \mathrm{~K} .12: 17$, 'As to the children of Israel, -ivne so reigned Rehoboam over them;'1 K. 9: 21. Dan. 8: 22. In respect to the like form after a clause with the Inf. or Part., see § 129, n. 2, and § 131, n. 2.

Remark. We must not unfrequently translate the consecutive $V$ av, by that (conj.), in order to give the true sense of the Hebrew, [for the form of it we cannot give]. E. g. Ps. 144: 3, 'What is man, gardest him?' Comp. Ps. 8, where is the same, with the exception that gupplies the place of ? Jer. 51: 12, 'Who art thon, shouldest be afraid?' In substance the though abne is as follows: 'How insignificant is man! And yet thou dost regard him.'

In respect to the relation of time, the Iinperfect in a sequel follows the model of the tense which precedes.
(a) It relates to the Present, in narrations where the preceding Perfect has the sense of a Present; ${ }^{1}$ or an Imperfect has the same sense; ${ }^{2}$ or a Participle. ${ }^{3}$
(1) Gen. 32: 6. Is. 2: 7, 8. Job 7: 9. 14: 2. (2) Job 14: 10. 1 Sam. 2: 29. (3) Nah. 1: 4. 2 Sam. 19: 2. Amos 9: 6.
(b) Less frequently does it designate the future, when a Perf. precedes with a Fut. sense; ${ }^{1}$ or a proper Future ${ }^{2}$ or an Imperative. ${ }^{3}$
(1) Is. 5: 15, 16. 22: 7, 8. Joel 2: 23. Mic. 2: 13. (2) Is. 9: 10. Joel 2: 18, 19. (3) Ps. 50: 6. Gen. 49: 15, (where a clause precedes without a verb); and so a noun absolute may precede, Is. 9: 11; or it may be introductory to another Future ; as in 1s. 2: 9. 9: 13.

In the after-clause, then it means so that it might $b c$. It may also stand in a conditional
 Imperf., § 125, 5.

$$
\text { § } 127 .
$$

## Of the Imperative.

1. The Imperative designates not merely conimand, but also warning, request, wish, concession.
E. g. Hos. 10: 12. 2 K. 5: 22; also with צֶ, Is. 5: 3. Ps. 8: 2. With \%, Gen. 23: 13. 2 Sam. 18: 23. Is. 45: 11.

Particularly is it employed in assurances, in earmest promises, (like our thou slatt have this or that, which sounds imperatively); and thence in prophecies.

See in Is. 6: $10=$ thou shalt harden, etc. Promises: Ps. 128: 5, ㅈำ = thou shalt see; Is. 37: 30. 65: 18. Ps. 22: 27. Gen. 20: 7. Threatenings: Is. 23: $1=y e$ shall howl; 1s. 23: 2, 4. 10. 30. 13: 6 . In all these cases, the Imperative approaches near to the Imperf., which precedes it in the same sense ; Gen. 20: 7. 45: 18; or follows it, Is. 33: 20.

In almost all its meanings, the particle $\mathfrak{N}$ is added to the Imper., in order to give it anmation or intensity, (§103). Specially is this the case when there is a command, whether it be simply to do this or that, Ges. 24: 2 , or whether it be uttered in a tone of objurgation and threatning, Num. 16: 26. 20: 10. Also in case of a request; as

2. The uses indicated above explain the peculiar usage of
 When the first contains a wowning, and the second a promise. In this case, the first implies the condition, on which the promise in the second will be fulfilled, (like divide, et imperil).
F. g. Gen. 42: 18, :
 'be watchfully active, and thou shalt have plenty of food.' Ps. 37: 27. Prov. 7: 2. 9: 6. Job 20: 21. Is. 36: 16. 45: 22. Hos. 10: 12. Amos 5: 4, 6 .
(b) In the sense of threctening; when the first ironically permits or enjoins, the second threatens the consequence.
 discomfited; Is. 29: 9. In the second member, in such a case, the Imperf. may also stand; as in Is. 6: 9. 8: 10. 1 Sam. 17: 44.

Note 1. How far both the Perf. and Imperf. may serve to express command, see § 124,5 . § 125,3, c.

Note 2. The assertion by some grammarians, that the Imper. form, in several passages, stands for the third person, is incorrect. E. g. Gen. 17: 10, 'Every male circumcised. But in v. 12 we have bibn, as an exchange; and besides this, the form birn is Inf., which gives the same sense, $\$ 128,4, b$. Ps. 22: 9, 3: Inf. (not Imper.). Gen. 31: 50. Judg. 9: 28. Is. 45: 21, are all actual Imperatives of the second person.

## § 128.

## Use of the Infinitive absolute.

The Inf. absolute is employed, in general, (as has been noted in $\$ 45$ ), when action is designated, which stands neither in close connection with what follows, nor with any noun or particle which precedes. Its most important uses will be subjoined.

In case of such a connection, the Inf. cunst. is of course employed. When several Infinitives are linked together in such a case, and if they should each have a preposition in order to complete the full construction, yet oftentimes only the first one has it, and brevity omits it before those Inf. verhs which follow; e. g. 32: 6. Comp. 1 Sam. 22: 13. 25: 26. Jer. 7: 18. 44: 17. This case has an analogy with that explained in $\S 119,3$. See also No. 4. $a$. of the present $\$$.

1. When it is governed by a transitive verb, and is used as an Accusative.
E. g. Is. 42: 24,
 Jer. 9: 4. (N. B. The const. Inf., either with or without a preposition, is most frequently employed in such a connection and for such a purpose ; the preposition depending on the construction of the foregoing verb, § 139, 1, 2).

Substantially the rule applies to such cases as Is. 22: 13, 'See! Joy and
 and the slaughter of sheep, the eating of flesh and the drinking of wine, (mere Arcusatives governed by see!) Is. 5: 5, 'I will tell you what I will do with my vincyard, , . . . . . . the tearing down of its wall [I will].
2. When the Inf. stands adverbially in the Accusative, (like the Lat. gerund in -do) ; c. g. בהיח well (lit. bene faciendo); חַּחֵּ much, (lit. multum faciendo).

In regard to the Aec. as the arlverbial case, see $\S 116$. In Arabic, it has in this predicament an Acc. ending. Generally the Inf. abs. answers, in most cases, to the Acc. of the Iuf., (see Nos. 1. 2. 3. of this $\S$, and even No. 4 is to be traced back to this principle).
3. When the Infinitive stands connected with a finile verb, so as to impart energy to it [energical Inf.].
(II) Most commonly is it put before the finite verb, and it marks in general the strengrlhening or intensity of the verbal idea.


 stroy; Judg. 1: 28.

This Infinitive frequently amounts to a mere rendering prominent an action; a matter which other languages bring about merely by tone in utterance, i. e. by emphasis, or by particles ; as in case of assurances, and questions full of feeling or expressive of astonishment, and also in contrasts.
路 Mrene , thou hast undoubtedly come, ? longed much; Judg. 15: 13,下ne: 24: 24. Hab. 2: 3.
(b) When the Inf.abs. stands after a finite verb, this comnection for the most part designates continuance of action, or the lasting nature of it.


 moving along and lowing, i. e. continually lowing as they advanced; $\mathbf{1 K}$. 20: 37. For the second Iuf, a finite verb may be employed, Josh. 6: 13 ; or a participle in its stead.

Note 1. Such is the common usage, when the Inf. is placed after the finite verb. But it is not cxclusivcly of such a meaning; for where the context does not lead to the idea of repetition and continuance, such an Inf.
is merely energic or intensive. Is. 22: 17. Jer. 22: 10. Gen. 31: 15. $46: 4$. Dan. 10: 11, 13. In Syriac, this Inf. of intensity stands before the definite verb; in Arabic, it stands after it. A negative particle commonly stands between the two verbs, as Ex. 5: 23; seldom before hoth, Gen. 3: 4.

Note 2. With the dcrived conjugations, the Inf. abs. is employed, not only of the same Conj., but also the Inf. of Kal ; e.g. the same, as Gen. 17: 13. 40: 15 ; but of a different Conj. as in Gen. 37: 33 , surely torn in pieces; Job 6: 2. Or if the Inf. abs. of Kal he not employed, another Inf. of the like sense may be used ; as in Gen. 19: 20. 1 K . 3: 23.

Note 3. In respect to continuance of action, (as adverted to in $b$. above), the verb and then it expresses constant accession; e. g. Gen. 26: 13, , i. e. and he continually waxed greater and greater, (lit. he advanced, going onward, and hecoming great); 2 Sam. 5: 10. Gen. 8:3, 'And the waters returned ... . Not unfrequently a participle, [instead of a finite verb], is employed in this construction ; e. g. 1 Sam. 2: 26, 'The lad Samuel בiׁv ך constantly greater and better. Similar to this is the French idiom, in le mal va toujours croissant; la maladie va toujours en augmentant, i. e. increases constantly and becomes worse.
4. When the Inf. stands, (as it sometimes does), for a finite verb, two separate cases are to be distinguished:
(a) When the finite verb precedes. If, for example, several actions following successively are described, then oftentimes, specially in the later books, only the first verb exhibits tense and person; the rest may be of the Inf. form, to which the person and tense of the finite must be attached. Comp. §119. 3.
E. g. in the Perf.; Dan. 9: 5, מָּרְדִוֹ, we have rebelled, and [we are] turned back or have revolted; Gen. 41:43, בפּnhin, 'and he made him
 Jer. 14: 5. So with the Imperf. preceding; Jer. 32: 44, 'Fields with money ". . , shall they purchase. . . ต 15: 35.
(b) Without a finite verb. The Infinitive, (which in itself is a pure designation of action merely), can, in the way of brevity and emphasis, be put for any tense or person whatever of any verb, which the sense of the passage demands.
(a) For the Perfect, in animated narration or description, (like the his-
 they set in order the table，they station the watch，they eat，they drink， or to set in order，etc．，［this they do］．Hos．4：2．（b）For the Imperf．，i．e． in the sense of the Future ； 2 K．4：43，אָּרֹ，ye shall eat and have a remnant．（c）Most frequently for the cnergic Imperative（ $\$ 46, \mathrm{n}$ ．）；e．g．


 1 K．22：30，א゙ニy

Note 1．In connection with a subject named，the Inf．seldom stands for a finite verb；as in Job 40：2．Ezek．1： 14.

Note 2．Rare are the examples，where the shorter Inf．form is used in these cases．Such，however，are some common Infinitives const．，which have an adverbial sense，or are like the Latin Gerund in－do；e．g．Is． 60：14，＇They shall come to thee חַּחִּ，in a bending posture，＇curvando．
 Ruth 2：16，，

## § 129.

The Infinitive construct．
1．The Inf．const．，as a verbal noun，can be regarded as hav－ ing all the relations of nouns in respect to case，（see § 115）． Consequently，it may be，
（a）In the Nom．，as the subject of a sentence；
 alone．＇
（b）In the Genitive；Gen．29：7， 5 ， also belongs the case，where the Inf．const．，like a mere noun，is governed by a preposition ；see No． 2 below．
 going out or coming in．（Sometimes the Inf．abs．is employed in the same way ；§ 128,1 ）．

2．When the Inf．is constructed with prepositions，（as in Greek $\varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \tau(\tilde{i}) \varepsilon i v a t)$ ，we must often translate into English by using a con－ junction with a meaning accordant with the preposition．

E．g．Num．35：19，ネューデมีコ，when he lays hold upon him ；Jer．2：35，
 that he could not see，＇（pִ before a noun，in the sense of removing from and lack or want of ）．The Lexicon is the proper source of information，as to the use of the various prepositions．
3. In respect to the relation of time, the Inf. may express that of the Past. (See on the Part., § 131, 2).
E. g. Gen. 2: 4, of them).
 about to do, desirous to do, or ready to do ; (as we say in English: I am
 was about to set. Hence this Inf. is used as a circumlocution for the Im-

 like in Is. 21: 1. Ecc. 3: 15. Prov. 19: 8, comp. 16: 20. (2) It means: It is
 mote, and the gate was to shut, i. e. to be shut. Commonly the verb is omitted in cases of this kind; as in $2 \mathrm{~K} .4: 13$, $\pi \mathfrak{2}$ ? done? 2 Chron. 19: 2. (3) He was able to do ; (comp, the Latin non est
 (The text here renders this sense necessary; and it is fully expressed in
 possum. See Agrell, Supp. Synt. Syr. p. 9. 10).

Note 2. The Hebrew writers frequently pass from the Inf. construction, of which we are treating, to that of the definite verb; and before this Inf. we must supply a conjunction which will correspond to the preposition before it. So a Perfect is joined to such an Inf. in Amos 1: 11,
 compassion; Gen. 27: 45, (where is an Imperf. with Vav. consec.); Gen. 39:
 voice and cried; Is. 30: 12. 38:9. Most commonly such an Inf. construction is followed hy a clause with an Imperf. of the definite verb, which is preceded in the clause by a ! ; e. g. Is. 5: 24. 10: 2. 13: 9. 14: 25. 30: 26. Comp. a like sequel of the Part, and a definite verb, § 131. n. 2.
§ 130.
Connection of the Inf. construct with Subject and Object.

1. The Infinitive can be constructed with the case that belongs to the definite verb; and in transitive verbs, therefore, it has an Acc. of object.

 rightrous; 1 K. 12: 15. 15: 4. 2 K. 21: 8. Ezek. 44: 30. Lev. 26: 15, รוֹuz


[^101]right. So, also, with the Acc. of the Pronoun; as mix men establish thee, Deut. 21): 12; "דּבִיבּ, to bring me buck, Jer. 38: 26; ":njo to kill me, Ex. 2: 24. See also 1 Sam. 27: 1. 5: 10. 28: 9. 1 Chr. 12: 17.
N. B. A verbal noun, (analogous to the Infinitive), governs the Acc. in the sume way; e. g. .ņurnene the knowledge of Jchovah, (lit. to know the Lord), ls. 11: 9. 30: 28.
2. When the Inf. has a subject, it is usually put immediately after the verb; in part as a noun in the Gen., (because the Inf. is used as a const. noun) ; and in a still greater part, as a Nominative.
E. g. 2 Chron. 7: 3, as a Gen., דֶדת דָא , the descent of the fire; Ps. 133: 1, , live together; Ex. 17: 1, 'There was no water of the poople,' i. e. for the people to drink. In a special manner, are Infinitives so constructed, when they have a feminine termination; e. g. 1s. 47: 9,

 like with suff. pronouns; as Ps. 4: 2, 4, "הִּק , when I call, (lit. in the
 [perhaps not, as ${ }^{2}$-. may be the Acc. of object $=$ when he lrought we back; so Cocceius].

On the other hand, the Genitive is out of question in such cases as fol-
 M, (not as stat. const. would make it), when the carth shakes;
 19: :20, sider it. It is sulstantially the same case, when the Inf. is separated from its subject l,y some intervening word, (which sometimes happens); as Judg. 1): 2, , men rule over you . . . or whether one man only rule over you; Ps. 76: 10. See No. 3.
3. When the Inf. has both subject and object, normally the subject follows next after the Inf., and the object takes the second place. When the object is in the Acc., then the sulbject (as in

[^102]No. 2 above) is sometimes in the Gen., but mostly in the Nominative.
The Genitive, (predominant in Arabic), shows itself in Deut. 1: 27,

 lifted up my voice. The Nominative has a place in constructions like
 those who lift it up, (where we must have the form , if the subject, , wֵּבֶu, were in the Genitive). Commonly we must regard the subject as in
 heard the word of the man of God; Gen. 13: 10. 2 Sam. 3: 11. Ezek. 37: 13.

Remark. In case the verb governs a double Accusative, it may be re-
 thee to know all this, Gen. 41: 39.
N. B. Rare is the case, (but it still occurs), where the object is placed next after the Inf., and then the subject behind this, as a kind of supplement; e. g. Is. 20: 1, בִּun when Sargon sent him; Ezra 9: 8, , that our God should enlighten our eyes; 2 Chron.
 24. 29: 23. Ps. 56: 1.

## § 131. Use of the Participle.

1. The only active form of the Participle now extant, attaches to itself the meaning of all tenses.
E. g. nor dying, Zech. 11: 9; who is dead, dead ; who will die, Gen. 20: 3; so לघִּ, who falls, is fallen, will fall; Hey, about to do, Gen. 41: 25.
Is. 5: 5. Most frequent of all is the sense of the Present.
Passive Participles stand, therefore, for the Latin participial in -dus;

2. So far as the Participle stands for a finite verb, and is the predicate of a sentence, it designates,
(a) Most frequently the Present. (In Syriac and Chaldee, this is its
 parteth, and another generation cometh; Ecc. 1: 7, , all the streams flow; Gen. 4:10. In case a pronoun is the subject, it is either put before or after the participle, as דידא אָּבִּי, I am afraid, Gen. 32: 12; ; we wre afraid 1 , 1 Sam. 23: 3 ; or else the appropriate

erest. In negative sentences, $\boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ (there is not) is employed in the same

(b) The Future; (conceived of as Present, § 124, 4). E. g. Is. 5: 5, 'I

(c) The Past; very frequently in connection with other contempora-
 speaking, another came ; Gen. 42: 35. Ex. 2: 6. Judg. 13: 9. 1 Sam. 17: 23. But also out of such a connection, and directly for the praeterite Perfect;


Joined with the verb ${\underset{\sim}{n}}_{\sim}^{\sim}$, , the Part. constitutes a circumlocution for the
 15: 17. Judg. 1: 7. 16: 21. (In Syriac, the Part. with its pronoun forms the usual Present ; when the verb of existence is added, it forms the Imperfect).

Note 1. In all three cases under No. 2, in animated reference to anything, గen see! is prefixed, (a) Where the Part. stands for the Present; as
 (b) For the Future; Geu. 6: 17. Is. 3: 1. 7: 14. 17: 1. (c) For the past; as Gen. 37: 7. 41: 17.

Note 2. A construction beginning with a participle, very frequently goes over into a finite verl, hefore which the pronoun is to be supplied, which lies in the participle. Thus in Is. 14: 17, the sentence begins with the Part. Imperf. ( $=$ Present). Between these clauses, ( 9 ) may be inserted or omit-
 and 31: 1. 1 Sam. 2: 8. Prov. 19: 26. With ! between, Gen. 27: 33, הָָּ
 gimning of a sentence with the Inf. and its continuance by a finite verb, § 129, n. 2).

$$
\oint 132 .
$$

## Construction of the Participle.

1. When the participle is accompanied with a designation of the object of action, it may be constructed in two ways; viz.
(a) As a verbal governing the case after it, either directly, or by means of a preposition before the object; c. g. 1 Sam. 18: 29,
 , לֶׁ , clothed with linen garments.
(b) The Part. takes the construct form and is followed by a Genitive of


[^103] with linen garments.
N. B. The last construction with the Genitive occurs only in the participles of active verbs (\$135). To these belong such cases as Gen. 23: 10, ค ַּּ usually takes the Acc. after it, (comp. ingredi portam). Moreover even where a verb occurs which takes a preposition after it, its participle, by partaking of the substantive quality sometimes takes a simple Genitive af-
 stead of
2. The verbal relation and power of the Part., in No. 1 above, extend to suffix-pronouns as well as nouns.
E. g. פֿ vixu, who created me, with verbal suff. in the Acc.; but with the Genitive construction it reads עy , my Creator.
§ 133.
Mode of expressing the Optative.

That for the expression of the Optative the Imperfect is employed, and specially with the ending $\left(\Pi_{\tau}\right)$ and with the particle $\begin{aligned} & \text {, }\end{aligned}$, we have already seen, $\S 125,3, b$. Here we shall only add two other methods of expressing it by circumlocution.

1. By questions expressive of $a$ wish.
 O that one would appoint me, etc.! Judg. 9: 20, , who will give this pcople into my hand? = 0 that some one would give,
 giving, and merely $=$ utinam, $\boldsymbol{I}$ would that, etc. But it may be connected, (a) With an Acc.; as in Deut. 28: 67, צִ, $\boldsymbol{O}$, צִּ $\boldsymbol{O}$ that it were eve-
 died! (c) With the finite verb, (either with or without !); Deut. 5: 26,
 23: 3.
2. By the particle Ex if, $O$ if, לו $O$ if; specially the last.
E. g. Ps. 139: 19. In Gen. 17: 18, the Imperf. follows the particle; in Ps. 81: 14, the Participle; in Gen. 23: 13, the Imperative. When the Perfect follows, it expresses a wish that something might have taken place; as Num. 20: 3, ,

## § 134. <br> Persons of the Verb.

1. The persons of the verb are sometimes employed in an irregular way, in regard to gender.
E. g. The masc. (as the nearest and most ready gender) instead of the
 males) ; and so Is. 57: 8, 51 (for second fem.), comp. Cant. 2: 7. See also the analogy in the use of pronouns, $\S 119$, n. 1 .
2. The third person is frequently employed in what is called an impersonal way; most frequently in the masculine form.


 50: 3. Jer. 10: 7. (In Arab. and Ethiopic, the masc. is employed in the like way; in the Syriac, the feminine).
3. The third person with an indefinite subject, i. e. one, some one, some, etc.
E. g. (a) By the third pers. singular; as אָָp one called-named, Gen. 11:9. So Gen. 16: 14. 1 Sam. 19: 22. 24: 11. (b) By the third person
 in, for one brought, or the was brought. (c) By the second person; as in

 comest, etc. = until one comes, etc. (d) By the use of the Passive; as

Note 1. The case (a) above occurs once with the Noin.
 try, the Pres. participle of the verb that is expressed, is either supplied or
 Jer. 9: 3. Ezek. 33: 4. (The last is common in Arabic).
Note 2. When emphasis is attaclied to the pronoun, it is expressed and
 Ps. 139: 2. Sometimes the pronoun follows the verb; as Judg. 15: 12. But the later writers employ this latter method, without any special empha-

Note 3. Specially in poetry and prophecy a transition from one person

* Not unfrequently the third press. plural, (like diomet), is to he regarded as $=$ the
 been assigned, viz. by God. So Job 4: 19. 17:12. 32: 15. 34: 20. In Chaldee this is very common, see Dan. 2: 30. 3: 4. 5: 3, al.; and so in Syriac.
to another is common, even in the same sentence. E. g. Is. 1: 29, 'For thry shall be ashamed of the oaks which ye fondly love,' (the same persons are the subject in both verbs) ; Is. 61: 7. Deut. 32: 15, 17. Mic. 2: 3. In Job 13: 28 , the third person is probably used $\delta \varepsilon \iota x \tau \iota x \tilde{\omega}_{s}$ for the first ; comp. Job 6: 21 (with the reading 172). $^{\text {17 }}$
§ 135.


## Verbs with the Accusative.

All verbs transitive in general govern the Accusative, (§116). In regard to these, we may suggest,

1. That many verbs are capable of being used either with or without an object.
[In Euglish we have a multitude of verbs, which are capable of being employed in a transitive and intransitive or neuter sense, some of which

 also to go out of, quit, Gen. 44: 4.
Note 1. Several verbs of this kind express a kindred noun with and after them; e. g. ${ }^{4}$. This is most frequent, when the noun receives any accessary explanations;
 and bitter cry. Gen. 27: 33. Zech. 1: 14. 1 Chron. 29: 9.
Note 2. Verbs which indicate flowing or streaming, take, in poetry, the $\boldsymbol{A} c c$. of that with which they flow or stream; as Lam. 3: 48 , 'Mine eye flows down $\boxed{\square}$, streams of water, (Acc.). Joel 4: 18, 'The hills
 to float along, Is. 10: 22. Bolder still in Prov. 24: 31, 'See! it [the field] E.

Note 3. Poetical usage is it, when verbs signifying to work, to speak, or to cry out, take after them the Acc. of instrument, means, or member, whereby the action is performed. Plainest for our consideration is the ex-
 (comp. n. 1), for-with a loud voice; Ps. 109: 2, to speak [with] a false
 , , with] my mouth do I cry, i. e. with full mouth, loudly; and so, speak [with] the mouth, Ps. 17: 10; [with] the lips, Ps. 12: 3; to labour [with] the hand, Prov. 10: 4 ; to help [with] the right hand-hand—sword, Ps. 17: 13, 14. 44: 3. 60: 7. 1 Sam. 25: 26, 33. Everywhere with the Acc. of instrument. The same relations are sometimes indicated by prefixed to the noun ; e. g. to praise with the mouth, Ps. 89: 2. 109: 30; to supplicate with the mouth, Job 19: 16. The same usage prevails in Greek; as
$\pi \varrho 0 ; \alpha i v \varepsilon \iota \nu \pi o ́ \delta \alpha, \pi \alpha i z \iota \nu$ şipos，（see Porson and Schäfer ad Eurip．Orest． 1427．1477；Bernhardy Synt．I10）．That the Accus．here is actually de－ pendent on the verb，is clear by a comparisnn with $n .1,2$ above．So the German ：eine herrliche Stimme singen，etc．［In English，the Acc．of in－ strumentality is scarcely to be found，propositions being employed］．

The Hebrew，on the other hand，often uses the of instrument where we employ simply the Acc．In both languages we may say：Nocl the head，and nod with the head；to gnash the teeth，and with the teeth； where head and teeth are respectively，first，objects of the verb，and then de－ signated as instruments．But but must express it thus：to make an opening with the mouth．So So ＝ּדּיָּ ，to spread out with the hands（Lam．1：17），we do not so express， but omit the preposition．To translate literally is very awkward，e．g．to make an outsprearling with the hands．Comp． ［We follow only the latter．］

2．Many verbs govern the Acc．on account of the peculiar turn of their radical meaning，which in Greek，Latin，German， ［and English］，are connected with other cases．
 good news，［Eng．to］；Fix to commit adultery，［Eng．with］；ニージャ to pledge， ［Eng．give pledge for ；i．e．in Eng．the noun that follows，in all these cases， demands a preposition before it］．

Note 1．The passive and reflexive conjugations，also，as Niph．，Hoph．， Hithp．，may take the Acc．，when their meaning is appropriate to govern it；

 consider，Job 37： 14.

Note 2．In phrases that are very common，the $\boldsymbol{A} c c$ ．can be omitted



3．There are in Hebrew some whole classes of verbs，which take the Accusative after them；［in some cases of which the usage is peculiar］．E．g．
（a）Verbs of putting on or off；e．g． off ；to dress ornamentally．The Hebrew says：＇The fields ＂존，are clothed with flocks，［so we are obliged to express it，but the sbape of the Hebrew is：put on flocks－a very vivid poetical expression］． Ps．109：29．104： 2.
（b）Verbs expressing fulness or want；e．g．פֶּ ，to be full；to



ロMix was full［of］them，＇Ex．1：7．So Gen．18：28，＇perhaps there may
 （אְַֻּׁׂ）even both of you，＇（Acc．）．
（c）Verbs of dwelling not in a place，but among a people，or with any
 those who send forth flames．Ps．5：5．120： 5.
（d）Verbs that indicate a coming or going to a place；hence 뜨 with the Acc．after it．The Acc．of place $(\$ 116,1)$ ，seems to stand near to this usage．
§ 136.

## Verbs with a double Accusative．

1．＇Io these belong the causative conjugations of all the verbs which take an Acc．after them in Kal．

 ［with］garments of fine linen．And so Ps．18：33，＂אֻ，to gird with；


2．Many other verbs in Kal，which have a meaning equiva－ lent to that double causative meaning．

E．g．To cover，clothe，Ex．29：9．Ps．5：13．Thence to sow，plant，Is． 5：2．17：10．30：23．Judg．9：45．－T＇o anoint，Ps．45：8；so to fill，present with，to rob of，Ezek．8：17．Gen．27：37；to put upon one， 1 Sam．24：18；

 sives of these verbs，see $\S 140,1$.

We express such a thing by saying：＇He made thercof holy oil．＇The Hebrews designate the material by the Acc．，when，in our language，we are obliged to employ of，out of，etc．E．g． 1 K．18：32，ニ．ニּ חהּnta，and he made［out of］ihe stones an altar，or more literally，he built the stones into an altar．Lev．24：5．The construction is peculiar，when
 he made［out of］brass．Gen．2：7．Ex．25：39．36： 14.

Another species of double $\boldsymbol{A} c c$ ．is it，when the second word is exegetical of the first；which borders on the adverbial use of the Acc．，（\＄ 116 ）；e．g． The to to smite any one［on］the jaw bone，Ps．3：8，comp．Dent．33： 11．So ？ Deut．37： 21.
§ 137.
Verbs with Prepositions．
The Hebrews have no verbs compounded with prepositions．

Modifications of verbal ideas，which are expressed in other lan－ guages by compounding verbs and prepositions，are here ex－ pressed in several ways：
（a）By verbs of a peculiar use，such as בッּ，to return $[=$ again $]$ ；ニッマ， to go before；${ }^{\text {a }}$ ，to meet－go over against．
（b）By prepositions that follow after the verb；［like our English：put down，put up，put in，put off，etc．］E．g．אָp，to call；with ？following，
 with 引き，to fall upon，to fall away；with ？ so 仿，to go，with ，to go after，to follow．

The more exact statement of these niceties belongs to the Lex．，which should be consulted for every variation of such a nature．In regard to whole classes of words which are constructed with this or that particle，we might here speak；but it is better to remit the subject to the syntax of the prepositions，§ 151，3，where more will be said．
［Remark．Gesenius＇Ineb．Lexicon does indeed notice the variety of particles that follow either the same verb，or different verbs；and not unfrequently the distinctions of meaning that arise from this．But after all，this is a part of Heb．lexicorgraphy which has never yet been fully and satisfactorily developed．To state the bare fact， that a verl）is constructed with $\curvearrowleft$ ，or $=$ or $-\stackrel{\text { ，or }}{2} \boldsymbol{2}$ ，ete．，is scarcely giving the rea－ der any information of importance．The rerious sluedes of meming that arise from each of these，（and such there must be），requires the work of Hehrew lexicography again to be renewed，until this important matter is completed．－S．$]$

## § 138.

## Constructio pregnans．

This so－named construction occurs，in Hebrew，particularly when a verb，which in itself is not a verb of motion，is connect－ ed with a particle which implies motion；so that，in order to make a full and correct sense，we must mentally supply a verb of motion between the verb expressed and the particle，or re－ gard this verb as comprising，with its leading idea，an adjunct idea such as suits the nature of the case．
E．g．Gen．43：33，לxู nusir，to be astonished at，but more exactly，to turn
 follow after Jehovah，alridged from הoncr
 ［but here the word save is carried mentally forward from the preceding
 nerez，his prisoners he loosed not，（nor sent them）to their home；［but we may translate－dismissed not to their home，so that a const．pregnans is not necessary］．Ps．89：40．Gen．42：28．Is．41： 1.

## § 139.

Connecting of two verbs in one idea.
When a verb requires another verb in order to complete its idea, then the second stands,

1. In the Infinitive, either absolute ( $\$ 128,1$ ), or construct.



2. With ? before the Infinitive.

 hast hastened to find; ; i. e. quickly found, etc.
N. B. Both of these constructions [with and without 3] are predominant in prose after such verbs as begin (3חn, hanin), continue, add, go on
 Besides such constructions, modality of action is designated, by such verbs as such verbs as to will (חָָּ,


 loved thee not to touch.
It deserves special notice, that 3 before the Inf., (which is very common in prose), is often omitted in poetry ; e. g. Inf. of (אָּ with לְ in Ex. - 10: 27, without it in Job 39: 9. Is. 30: 9. 42: 24.—And the same is true of such constructions as take the place of a verb before the Inf., as איֵּ לָּ it is not allowed to enter; but poetically we have , it is not to be computed, Ps. 40: 6. So after שָr ready, prepared, a לְ is usually put before an Inf. in prose, while in poetry it is omitted, Job 3: 8.
3. With a finite verb following ; and in such a way,
(a) That the second verb is annexed by a Vav (!), and corresponds to the first, in respect to tense, gender, and number ; like our 'May he be willing and do this! He will be ready and do this $;$ ' = willing to do, ready to do, etc., completing but one idea.*





[^104]shall I be able and see $=$ how shall I endure to see; Cant. 2: 3. Ecc. 4: 1, 7.

Discourse may begin with the Imperf., and go on with the Perf. and Vav consec. (\$ 124, 6), like Esth. 8: 6 above. So Deut. 31: 12, that they learn (Imperf.), and fear (Perf.), i. e. learn to fear. Hos. 2: 11. Dan. 9: 25. On the other hand; it may begin with the Perf., and go on with the Inperf. and Vav; as in Job $23: 3$.
(b) Even the Vav in question may be omitted between the two verbs; which omission makes them to combine the more closely, and most of all because of the concord as to tense.
 Hos. 1: 6,

 -he grieved $=$ it pleased Jebovah to sulject him to grief; Lam. 4: 14,
 not touch. Job 19: 3. Hos. 5: 11.

This second [asyndic] construction is more poetical than the one under (a); compare [-5̣ith a Vav following, in Gen. 25: 1. 38:5; on the other hand, without !, Hos. 1: 6. Is. 32: 1. Yet the asyndic construction occurs also in prose; as in Josh. 3: 16. Neh. 3: 20. 1 Chron. 13: 2. Dent. 1: 5.
(c) In like manner asyndic, but so that the Imperf. follows in intimate connection, and in translating we must supply that (conj.) before it.

 third day [that] thou come down $=$ thou shalt come down the day after the morrow; Is. 42: 21.

In Arab. and Syriac this construction is very common;* in the Heb. rather unfrequent, but still it is necessary where the second verb must differ
 shalt not continue, [that] they may call thee $=$ thou shalt no more be
 able [that] we smite him, and l may drive him out $=$ able to smite him, and drive him out, etc.

[^105]N. B. All three constructions (lett. a.b.c.), and also one which is like to (c), the Syrians have, in certain verbs placed by the side of each other. They can say: Potuit et ivit (lett. a.) ; potuit ivit (lett. b.); potuit et irct, (not in Hebrew); and potuit iret (lett. c.). See Agrell, Supp. Synt. Syr. p. 33.

## 4. With a Participle.

 when thou art prepared, a waster, i. e. ready to lay waste; 1 Sam. 16: 16.
 began dim, i. e. to become dim ;' and here belongs Gen. 9: 20, بּَ


Note 1. In many of the above examples, the first verb amounts to only a modification of the second, and may be expressed adverbially, as was shown above. See Gen. 31:27, זַּרֹ 37: 7, the sheaves encompassed and bowed down $=$ the surrounding sheaves
 to asking $=$ thou hast asked for a difficult thing.

Sometimes the verb indicating some connected meaning, is put in the second place, (instead of the first) ; but then it is for some particular reason;
 satisfaction; 1s. 66: 11, ye shall suck ye shall be satisfied $=$ ye shall suck with or to satisfaction, (for the satisfaction follows the action). Is. 26: 11.


Note 2. Different is the construction when verbs take a clause depending on or on on (that), which occupies the place of an Accusative, $(\$ 152,2)$. These verbs are such as sce, know, bclieve, remember, forget, say, think, happen, etc. On the omission of the conjunction before the same, see § 152, 4. c.

## § 140. <br> Construction of the Passives.

1. When a causative conjugation (Piel, Hiph.) governs a double Accusative ( $\$ 136$ ), the Passive retains the Acc. of object (the remoter one), while the near Acc. goes into a subject of the verb, or is comprised in it.

 ing made to put on garments); Ex. 25: 10, , wivi Mn M whe whe was shown thee, (lit. which thou wast made to see).
[The literal translation above makes it plain, why the second Acc., in
such cases, is preserved along with the passive form of the verb]. But there is something peculiar in the ennstruction of the passive, when it is used for the impersonal active, (like dicitur $=$ one says, they say); as, vice versá, the impersonal active is often used for the passive,* (\$134, n.). In this way we may explain the fact,
(a) That in the Passive the objert of action stands in the Acc. Thus Gen.


 Isaac was born to him, lit. when there was horn, etc.; Gen. 40: 20, Ein

 longer call thy name Abram; Lev. 16: 27. Josh. 7: 15.
(b) We may see why the Passive need not agree with the noun in gender and number, even when this goes before ( $\$ 144$ ); for it is not, after the Hebrew manner of conception, the proper subject of the verb, but the ob-
 vision has one announced to me, more literally, one has been caused to an-
 one determincd. Is. 14:3. Gen. 35: 26. Hos. 10:6. (See Olshausen, Emend. z. A. Test. s. 24, 25).
2. The efficient cause, in the Passive, is most frequently designated by ?, and is therefore really in the Dative, (as in Greek).
 1, 7. Prov. 14: 20. More seldom, yet altogether with certainty, it stands with ${ }_{i} \mathrm{P}$, ( from, indicating origin, derivation), Ps. 37: 23. Gen. 9: 11. Job 24: 1. Gen. 6: 13 , 36: 2.

An Accusative-instrumental may be employed after a Passive, without
 shall you be consumed; comp. Ps. 17: 13.

Note. Several neuter verbs, by a peculiar inflection of their meaning, are used in the sense of the Passive; e. g. ${ }_{\text {. }}^{7}$ felled, (spoken of a forest), or sunk down, lit. to descend; so | 3 |
| ---: | :--- |
| to ascend, but Lev. 2: 12, to be | brought or laid upon; in 1 Chron. 27: 24, to be brought unto. So אצּ yieldeth, Deut. 14: 22.

[^106]
## CHAPTER IV. <br> CONNECTION OF THE SUBJECT WITH THE PREDICATE.

## § 141. <br> Expression of the Copula.

When the noun or pronoun which is the subject of a sentence, is connected with another noun or adjective as the predicate of the same, they are usually put together without any copula.

 בiv, the gold of that land [is] good; Is. 31: 2, صכָּ wise. The personal pronoun, here and in all such cases, having a reference to the predicate, serves to connect the subject and predicate, (\$ 119, 2).
N. B. More rarely is the copula, made by the substantive verb ( $\boldsymbol{\square} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ pressed; as in Gen. 1: 2, And the earth was ( $\left.-\Gamma_{\tau} \cdot \underset{T}{\sim}\right)$ desolate and void; Gen. 3: 1, The serpent was (הָָּה) cunning ; so in Gen. 3: 20, al. If the subject is a pronoun, and the predicate a participle, stitute a copula, (see § $132,2, a$.).

As to the gender and number of the copula, comp. § 144.
Note. Instead of an adjective for a predicate, we find frequently an $a b$ stract noun, ( $\$ 104,1 . n$. 2.). Particularly is this the case, when no proper adjective has been formed to indicate the meaning which is needed, ( $\$ 104,2$ );
 has the sume force that it would have if the sulbject-noun or first noun were
 The fuller form is exemplified in Job 6: 12, , wa m is the force of stones my force? Virtually the same in Cant. 1: 15, asoin thine eyes [are the eyes] of doves. So Ezra 10: 13, anּ a time] of showers. Also Ps. 45: 7, בְּסְָּּ, thy throne [is a throne] of God. The next member of the verse exhibits the full form : a sceptre of righteousness the sceptre of thy kingdom. [? This is a doubtful construction of אֵאלּדת. Thy throne, $\boldsymbol{O}$ God, is etc., (i. e. the Voc.) is the sense which the Sept. and the epistle to the Hebrews ( $1: 8$ ) adopt, and which is generally approved, because it seems to be more easy and natural. Still, the view of Ges. and Roed. deprives the clause of no important part of its real force. Thy throne [is a throne] of God, must mean, that he who


an ellipsis, or omission of the repeated noun, when is prefixed to the predicate; e. g. Ps. 18: 34, nibupx hinds; Is. 63: 2, riz one who treadeth in the wine press ;' Is. 29: 4.

## § 142.

Arrangement of Words in Sentences. Case Absolute.

1. The most natural arrangement of words in a simple sentence, in continued unimpassioned discourse, is the following: Subject, Copula, Predicate; or, when the predicate is a verb with its object, then we have Subject, Verb, Object. Adverbial designations, e. g. of time, or place, may sland before or after the verb; but a negation stands always immediately before it.*

The Hebrews, however, put at the head of a sentence any member of it which they designed to make emphatic.
(a) The Verb; Prov. 28: 1, they flee, while no one pursueth, the wicked; Gen. 42: 30. This is the predominant construction in case of impersonal verls; as Gen. 1: 14, תinkp in, let there be luminaries; 1s. 13: 22, , צָּ $\mathrm{s}=\mathrm{w}$, there cried the jackalls; (like il vient des hommes, there comes some $m e n$ ). In particular such an arrangement prevails, whenever a relative
 where it stands before the Imperf. as ‘consecutive); e. g. Gen. 3: 1, 'All
 $\uparrow$, for the Lord had not caused it to rain.
(b) An arjective as predicate; nearly always is this placed first, because enphasis and importance are attached to it in this predicament; as

(c) The object of the verb; after which the verb immediately follows; e. g. Prov. 13: 5, lying speech hateth the righteous ; Is. 18: 5, a ripening cluster becomes the flower; Is. 8: 14. Gen. 47: 21. Seldom is there an arrangement like the following: An important word the prophet spake to thee, 2 K. 5: 13. Ex. 18: 23.
(d) Adverbial limitations; which are followed by the verb; as Gen. 1: 1.

N. B. The arrangement-Subject, Object, Verb, (common in Aramaean, Dan. 2: 6, 7, 8, 10), is rare in Hebrew, and only in poetry ; e. g. Ps. 6: 10 ,
 49: 6. See Ges. Comm. on Is. 42: 24.

[^107]In regard to the indeclinable nature of the predicate, see § 144.
2. The most intensive mode of expressing the substantive of a sentence, (be it Genitive, or Acc. of object, or some connected limitation), consists in putting the same at the head of the sentence, and repeating it again in the form of a pronoun, in the place to which it naturally belongs. (Comp. c'est moi, qu'on a accusé).
 104: 17. In Ps. 74: 17, winter and summer-thou hast created them; Gen. 47: 41, the people-thou hast made them to pass over; Gen. 21: 13. Comp. Jer. 6: 19.*-Moreover, the suffix in these cases can be omitted, Ps. 9: 7; and the union may be indicated by Vav (the sign of an after-clause); as


$\boldsymbol{P}$ eculiar, and like to the usage of the Latin, is the use of a participle prefixed to a sentence in this way; e. g. Prov. 23: 24, חוּגָּ
 , every one who presented an offering, then came the servant of the priest. 1 Sam. 9: 11.

## § 143.

## Relation of Subject and Predicate in respect to Gender and Number.

According to the noun, which constitutes the subject of a sentence, the predicate (verb, adjective, noun with copula) normally directs itself as to gender and number. From this rule, however, although common to all languages, many departures occur; which are grounded upon the principle of a constructio ad sensum, without regarding the mere grammatical form ; and also upon the position of the predicate, when it is made to precede. In respect to the first, it should be noted,

1. That nouns singular, which comprise in themselves a collective idea, like שָּ, people, namily, or like man, mankind (sce $\S 106,1$ ), may naturally be associated with the plural.
 15: 10. 1 K. 20: 20, אֲרֶּ collective noun is fem., and yet masc. individuals are denoted by it, the

[^108]case is the same，［constructio ad sensum］；as 2 Sam．15：23，モּבּבּ the whole land（its inhabitants）wept．＊ 1 K．10：24．Gen．48：6． 1 Sam．2： 33．17：46．Vice verst，we find a noun sing．masculine with a predicate
 ing．Examples where the predicate remains in the singular，in such cases，are Gen．35：11．Is．2：4，comp．Mic．4： 3.

Often the construction begins with the singular，（specially when the verb precedes，$\S 144,1$ ），and then，after the subject in the sing．is named，the construction goes on with the plural．
 mourned．Ex．1： 20.

2．On the other hand，plural nouns，which have a singular meaning（ $\$ 106,2$ ），may，and often do，take a verb，etc．，in the singular；（constructio ad sensum）．Specially is this the case with the so－called pluralis excellentiae．

E．g．Gen．1：1，3，where in cases almost without number．So of other like plurals］；as Ex．21：29， กอี่

In like manner a fem．form with a masc．meaning，takes a masc．predicate；e．g．פּדָ

3．The plural nanies of beasts and of things（not that of per－ sons），be they fem．or masc．，more usually take the fem．sing．for the predicate．$\ddagger$
＊Comp．Sallust，Jug．14：pars in crucem acti，pars bestiis objecti sunt．
$\dagger$ It is only in the older books of Scripture，that we find the plur．form ヒי－is joined with a plural predicate．Perhaps the idiom originated in the time of poly－ theism．［？To me it seems more natural to say，that ビージン is a pluralis intensirus， （the older Greek poets，e．g．Aeschylus，are full of such an idiom）；that the probable root is the same as the Arabic $-i=\mathrm{s}$ ，expavit ；and thence $\therefore \therefore \begin{gathered}\text { Allah，} \\ =\text { nomen tremen }\end{gathered}$
 brews，believing that object to be one，used with a singular verb，etc．；see Eichh． Simonis＇Lex．on rits．－S．］The plural predicate may be found in Gen．20： 13. 35：7．Ex．22：8．Ps．58：12．Later writers avoid this construction，out of fear that some appearance of polytheistic views may seem to be indicated．［There was ground enough for such a fear，in the religious history of the Hebrews．］Comp．Ex．32：4， 8，and Neh．9：18；also 2 Sam．7：23，and 1 Chron．17：21．See Ges．Lex．in verbum．
$\ddagger$ In Greek there is altogether the like idiom；e．g．тù $\pi \rho o ́ \beta a \tau a \beta$ reiveı；and in such cases Attic usage demands the singular，except when rational beings are the subject， ［when the plural is employed］；e．g．Tì civipímoifa है̉．a， $30 v$ ，the slaves took．In Ara－ bic，such a plural，（called technically pluralis inhumanus，i．e．not pertaining to human beings），is predominantly joined with a predicate sing．fem．；as are all the so－called Pluralia fracta，which are collective forms．

Comp, the fem. form with collective meaning, $\S 105,3 . d$. E. g. Joel 1:
 thereof overflow; Jer. 49: 24, חֲבָלִים וְחָזָּחָּ, severe pains lay hold upon her ; Ps. 37: 31. Job 12: 7. In the like manner, [i. e. by using sing. for plural], are the pronouns disposed of; Job 39: 15. Is. 35: 7. $2 \mathrm{~K} .3: 3$.
4. Even when the plural relates to persons, it may take a $\operatorname{sing}$. predicate, in case not the whole or collective body is to be designated, but each individual.

Comp. לפ $=$ omnes and omnis. Prov. 3: 18, , every one who takes hold of her is blessed. Prov. 27: 16, חִּ וּ M , every one who treasures up her, treasures up the wind, (verb. sing.) Prov. 28: 1. Gen. 27: 29. Ex. 31: 14.
5. Nouns in the dual take a plural predicate; for verbs, participles, adjectives, and pronouns, have no dual.
 1s. 30: 20. 2 Sam. 24: 3. 1 Sam. 1: 13, שְׁper her her lips moved. 2 Chron. 7: 15. 6: 40. Mic. 7: 10. Jer. 14: 7. Is. 1: 16. Job 10: 8. 20: 10. 27: 4. Ps. 38: 11. The distinction noted above in No. 3 of this $\S$, is seldom extended to the Dual. Mic. 4: 11.

## § 144. <br> Position of the Predicate.

1. Very often is there a departure from normal concord, when the predicate stands first. The subject to be named, in such a case, not being so fully and definitely in the mind of the speaker, as when he names it at the beginning of a clause or sentence, the most predominant and ready form of the verb is chosen, and of course the masc. singular, even when the subject may be feminine or plural. The predicate remains, [like a kind of impersonal verb], fixed and without declension. This will be seen in respect to all the variety of predicates; e. g.
(a) The verb; e. g. Is. 47: 1, , בָּ evil (fem.); Mic. 2: 6, nimbe per Ps. 57: 2. Deut. 32: 35. Esth. 9: 23, דֵan , the Jews took; 2 K. 3:
 difficulty in treating the verb which precedes as a verb impersonal, (like il vient des hommes, il a paru deux volumes, § 142, 1. a).
Seldom is the plur. masc. of the verb joined with the plur. fem. of the
 Shiloh go out.
(b) The adjective; e. g. Ps. 119: 137, tutes. [This is like our English idiom, where an adjective is not inflected]. Ps. 119: 155, רְּטיוּדָּ . . . pincin, far off . . . is safety.
 keeper of sheep [are] thy servants.
(d) The copula that connects with a noun which is a predicate, when it stands before its sulject, may follow the same rule; e. g. Is. 18: 5 , when a maturing grape becomes the flower, ירחריה בָּה; Gen. 27: 39. 31: 8.* [Obscurely expressed, and the proof doubtful.]

It should be carefully noted, that the apparent irregularity in question extends itself not beyond the first predicate; for other predicates afterwards subjoined in the same connection, conform to their subjects in gender and number.
E. g. Ezek. 14: 1, and they sat, etc.; Gen. 1: 14. Num. 9: 6.

Note 1. In general, the language is somewhat sparing as to the use of fcm . forms, (comp. $\$ 110,1,11.2$ ), and has contented itself with putting the nearest predicate to the fem. in concord with it. Instructive are the examples in Is. 33: 9, אָָּּ , it mourns, the country withers up;
 tion... it stirreth up the Shades on account of thee. On the like ground, nouns whose near predicate is fem., take, at a remoter distance, a masc. predicate; e. g. Gen. 32: 9. 49: 15. Lev. 2: 1. 5: 1. 20: 6. The like takes place in dependent clauses; as in Job 6: 10. 20: 26. So after

The like is true of the plural, to which pronouns sing. refer, when they stand more remotely ; Job 38: 32. Deut. 21: 10.

Note 2. The cases in which the nearer predicate does not appear to couform in number and gender to the subject, are partly such as that the verb must be regarded as a passive impersonal, and be construed with an Acc. ( $\$ 140,1$, n.) ; or else the predicate is a participle which is to be regarded as virtually a noun; e. g. Gen. 4: 7, , [is] $\sin$ a lier-in-wait; Ecc. 2: 7, ${ }^{4}$ ? ? the verb standing impersonally.
§ 145.
Construction of compound Subjects.

1. When the subject consists of a Nom. and Gen., the predicate sometimes follows the Gen., as to gender and number,

[^109]rather than the Nom. or const. noun ; i. e. in cases where the leading idea is attached to the Gen. noun.

 was, etc. Is. 6: 4. Job 38: 21.
Almost throughout is such a construction found after 35 and the nume-
 Ex. 15: 20. Gen. 8: 10.
2. When several subjects are connected by and ( $\%$ ), the predicate stands mostly in the plural; especially when it follows the nouns.
 But when the predicate stands first, it often directs itself after the gender and number of the nearest noun or subject ; e. g. Gen. 7: 7, ,
 Tinmu, and Miriam spake and Aaron. Seldom is the masc. preferred
 perfume rejoice the heart. If the construction advances beyond one predicate, the plural is chosen in such cases; e. g. Gen. 21: 32. 24: 61. 31: 14. 33: 7.

## CHAP'TER V.

## USE OF THE PARTICLES.

> § 146.
> General Remarks.

So far as the doctrine of the Particles constitutes a part of the doctrine of forms, ( $\$ 97-103$ ), it concerned us etymologically to comprise within our view the relation of this part of speech to the others. Here we have to do with the meaning and use of particles, which are words of high importance to an acute discernment of the sense, and to a philosophical treatment of language. 'Their most important properties should be here brought to view ; although we must leave to the Lexicon the more complete exhibition of them, and, fur the most part, the citation of passages for illustration and confirmation.

## § 147. <br> Of Adverbs.

The most important adverbs may be arranged according to their meaning, as follows:

1. Adverbs of place. Deve there, at that place; tim, here, (proi) for
 (the last also means here, comp. the Chald. in this;) הیָּ ther on, (prop. to a ristance); hence side of thee; also 1 Sam. 20: 22, 37. Is. 18:2. לیֻ, more usually beneath, under ; without ;
 Tren to or on the right; westward, (lit. from the [Mediterranean] sea);


Many particles designate the direction whence, by the preposition p; and the direction whither, by the Acc. [locative] ending ( $\Pi_{\Gamma}^{-}$). E. g. aw̦
 (to the without) abroad. Several adverbs appear only with $\pi_{-}$appended;

In the mean time, both of these appendages to adverbs designate also $a$ state of resting in any place; e. g. שָּ designates not merely thither, but therein; The $\Pi_{\top}$ in both its shades of meaning ( $\$ 88,2$ ), is a proper Acc. ending ; and $i=$ appropriately designates a dependence on anything; and hence the coudition of a thing on the side of another; (like a dextra, a sinistra, a latere, a tergo, and in French, dessous, dessus, dedans, dehors, i. e. below, above, within, without). Thus Cant. 4: 1, lie doon on the deponding of the mount of Gilead, i. e. on the side of.


2. Adverbs of time. In part these are the same as those of space, and are carried over, from analogy, to the designation of time. E. g. Eنָ then, like हंxยั ; तो now, at present, (and even beynd simple time-reckoning,



 night; בִּ


 ago, a long time ; צ゙צ (repeating), again, continually, still, (with a ne-

 $l y$; axne suddenly, in the twinkling of an eye.
(3) Adverbs for other modalities. (a) Condition; e.g. ì thus, so; the same; very ; preeminently, specially; more, very much ; ִּ כָּ little), almost, very near ; אֵּ so, consequcntly, Job 9: 24; hence fre-
 (connected with other adverbs), altogether, even, as so long, quite so long, Job 27: 3.

 thee; חרַּ much, enough; ? ? , only (in separation); the first of these takes suffixes as ? $\boldsymbol{I}$ I only;


 derived from is and ${ }^{2}$ =
 not ; thence perhaps. It expresses doubt, solicitude, hope.
(d) Limitation; for the expression of assurance can easily go over into its opposite, (comp. verum, vero); and therefore these assurance-particles
 bothi 1 the later Hebrew more particularly. As marking strong contrust אוּלָ is used, = on the other hand, on the contrary, (Sept. ov $\left.\mu \dot{\eta} \nu \dot{\alpha}^{3} \lambda \lambda \dot{u}\right)$, limited almost entirely to the Pent. and Job. For limitation, besides we have $\mathrm{P}^{\text {n }}=$ only, save.
 tion; Es morcover and even; and also the more poetic and climactic $\bar{x}$, much more, even entirely; which, however, often go over into the domain of conjunctions.
(4) Fur adverbs of negation, see § 149.
(5) Of inquiry; which comprises all the foregoing classes. Besides the appropriate interrogative particles, ( $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{O}}, \mathrm{E}, \S 150$ ), the question respecting, (a) Place, is asked by אֵּ , Nand first takes a suffix; as where


 low? (d) Of number ; Bow hany? how often? (e) Of cause or reason; (

Most of these interrogative particles are formed by the union with them of ，which of itself means where；then it hecomes merely the sign of a question，（whereaf，whercto？）before particles of place，time，or condition． In this manner，and by the use of the ending（ $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\bar{F}}$ ），of prefixed，and of





## § 148.

Construction of Adverbs．
1．Adverbs serve not merely for the purpose in general of definiteness or of making limitations and qualifications in a sen－ tence，but also for the limitations of adjectives；e．g．בוֹב very good．Moreover they connect with nouns，（like the Greek $\dot{\eta} \chi \vartheta \grave{\varepsilon} \varsigma \dot{\eta} \mu \varepsilon ́ \varrho \alpha)$ ；and then they stand：
（a）In apposition；as
 （b）In the Gcnitive；as adverb is treated as a noun．

Like nouns of quality also do adverbs appear，in the later writers，when they have a preposition prafixed；as $\mathfrak{i = 3}$（in the so），so，in such a way $=$记，Esth．4：16；；חֵּ in vain，for nothing，Ezek．6： 10.

2．The repetition of an adverb sometimes strengthens the expression，and sometimes denotes continual accession．
E．g．ד⿰亻⿱丶⿻工二⿺𠃊八凡 exceedingly much，Num．14：7；also more and more，Gen． 7：19；בֵָּּׁ little，Ex．23： 30.

How an adverbial idea is conveyed by verbs，see § 139．n． 1.

$$
\text { § } 149 .
$$

## Particles of Negation．

1．The most important adverbs of Negation must be here considered．




Particulars follow ：לֹ（like ov̉，ov̉x）stands principally for an objective， uncouditional negation；hence with the Imperf．for prohibition，（\＄125，3．c．）． In connection with $\zeta$ ל，and when without an article after it，（in which case

35 of itself means any one, every one), $\left.{ }^{2}\right\rangle$ means nullus, no one, none, none
 shall not eat of any tree in the garden, or ye shall cat of no tree, etc.
 2 Chron. 32: 15. Prov, 12: 21. 30: 30. (The negation is here closely connected with the verb, and not happens anything is therefore $=$ nothing happens. Even so thing new, i. e. nothing is nev. Quite otherwise is it, in case 3 is de-
 not see, i. e. merely a part of him. On the use of this negative in interrogations, see § 150,1 .
The position of is directly before the verb. Seldom is there a variation here; see $\S 142,1$.
$3 \times$ is properly $=\mu \dot{\eta}$, or the Latin $n e$ with the Imperf; ; still the phrase אֹn must not come; see § 125, 3. $c$, also § 126, 2.
Sometimes skends absolutely without any verb; and then it has the force of the $\mu \eta^{\prime}$ (Opt.) in Greek, which is an abbreviated method of saying:

 With respect to the interrogative use of $\} \S$, see $\S 150,1$.
Nיר is the negation [or direct opposite] of and includes in itself the verb of existence in all its tenses. E. g. Gen. 37: 29, איֵ , Jo-
 the midst of you. Formulas which in the affirmative have win (there is),
 my power, (lit. it is in the power of my hand), while the negative puts ; צ
 comes, (a) That when personal pronouns are the subject of the sentence, where these words are employed, they are connected with them as suffixes; e. g. אֵינֵ, I am not, I was not, I shall not be, [for all tenses belong to
 that follows, it is put, almost always, in the participle-form, because the
 not given; Ex. 5: 10, איחֵּ , I will not give; Ex. 8: 17. Deut. 1: 32. (c) Inasmuch as win is employed to designate existence simply, (there is $=$ there exists), so אֵֵ, the exact opposite of wn, denies existence; e. g. אירֶ, he was no more, Gen. 5: 24.
Abridged from אֵַץ comes the negative syllable ${ }^{\mathbf{N}}$, used in a kind of compound manner; as Job 22: 30, w, not innocent. (In Ethiopic, it is the most common negation-syllable, and is prefixed even to verbs).


Mņ? is properly a const. state or form, with the ending ${ }^{n}$-, , ( $\$ 88,3, a$ ), and it is most frequently employed, when the Inf. with a preposition is to be negatively expressed; e. g. positively not to cat, Gen. 3: 11. Seldom is it employed with a finite verlj for that not, as in Jer. 23: 14.

谓 properly means turning away, taking away, removing; and so it stands for that not, lest. It is used especially after the mention of some obstacle or hindrance, (Gen. 11: 4. 19: 15); or after verbs expressing fear, guarding against, and the like, (as $\delta \varepsilon i \delta \omega \mu \dot{\prime}$, vereor ne); Gen. 31: 24, 31. Also at the beginning of a sentence, which expresses solicitude; as in
 hand.
2. Two negations in the same sentence destroy not each other (as in Latin), but make the negation energic.




3. When two sentences with a negation follow each other, the negative is frequently inserted only in the first, and is to be carried forward by the mind to the second.
E. g. 1 Sam. 2: 3, אַ, 'do not very haughtily speak much, let [not] a perverse thing come out of your mouth.' Ps. 9: 19. Job 3: 10. 28: 17. 30: 20. (The same is the case with prepositions, § 151, 4).

## § 150 . <br> Of interrogative words and sentences.

1. The interrogative tone may be given by the reader, to a sentence which has no distinctive written sign of interrogation.
E. g. 2 Sam. 18: 29, 4, wix y

More frequent is this, when the interrogatory clause is united to a preceding one by a (?).
 10. $10: 8,9,13$. Judg. 11: 23. 14: 16. So after the particle E, Zech. 8: 6; also after $\overline{\mathrm{N}}$, Job 14: 3.

Negative sentences may readily be turned into interrogative ones; and when they exhibit $\approx \frac{\star b}{}$, the answer to such interrogatives is expected to be in the affirmative.
 iniquity? Jonah 4: 11. Lam. 3: 36, 37.

When $\mathfrak{N}(=n e)$ is employed, in such cases, a negative answer is expected.
E. g. 1 Sam. 27: 10, to-day.*

Of the few interrogative particles that exist in Hebrew, some are of an affirmative and some of a negative nature. The latter have gradually attained to an interrogative power. (So in Greek, $\eta_{\eta}^{\tau},{ }^{\circ} \dot{x}, \mu \eta^{\prime}$; in Latin, an, ne).

The interrogative $-(\$ 98,4)$ has originally a demonstrative meaning, and is related to the article.
 whence ?) properly not, there is not ; which interrogatively spoken, means:

 noun $=$ who? (Comp. German wo, and English who). But this is not
 der אֵ.
2. In simple interrogations $\boldsymbol{\square}$ interrogative usually stands ; in disjunctive ones, Ex go, or shall we cease [from going?] The same sequency is found in indirect questions, only that $E \times$ is more frequent in the simple question, and in the first place.
Particulars follow. The $r$ stands immediately before the pure and simple question, in regard to which one is uncertain as to the answer. Job
 pects a negative answer (num?), which may lie in the tone. Gen. 4: 9,
 הּחִּ shall he revive again?' Such questions may comprise the sense
 me a house? (In the parallel passage, 1 Chron. 17: 4, a direct negative, xं\} "มท with a negation, it may have the power of an affirmation; as $\underset{\text { sinn , is it not }}{ }$ so? and this is often used for nan lo! as in 2 K .15 : 21. 20: 20, comp. 2 Chron. 27: 7. 32: 32. $\dagger$

[^110]On the other hand, the question may be so spoken that one expects assent or agreement, in cases where we put not into the question; (as the Greek can employ $\dot{\tilde{\gamma}} \gamma \alpha \dot{\alpha} \rho$, or $\bar{\eta} \gamma \dot{\gamma} \rho$ ou in the like sense, ard the Latin ne for nonne. (Heindorf ad Plat. Phaedr. 266 D. Heusing ad Off. III. 17).
 tion, Ex rarely stands; and when it does, it is in the relation of disjunction from something which precedes; German, oder etwa; Latin, an. Is. 29:16. Job 6: 12.

In the disjunctive question, (utrum - an ?), the predominant forms are Ex - if also Exy-T, Job 21: 4. With emphasis on the first question, is Ext times put ix or, Job 16: 3. Ecc. 2: 19. Further, the connection Ex requires no contrast, but often stands in poetic parallelism, and elsewhere (Gen. 37: 8. Hab. 3: 8), where the same question is repeated merely with other words, and the difference of the second question lies not in the thing, but in the form of the words. Thus Job 4: 17, Is man just before God, (Ex) is a man pure before his Maker? Job 6: 5, 6. 8: 3. 10: 4, 5. 11: 2, 7. 22: 3. In continuing a question with another form, in a second otixos, is not unusual, [which of course virtually transfers the interrogative particle of the first $\sigma x i \% o s$ to that of the second] ; as in Joh 10:3. 13: 7. 15: 7, 8. 22: 4. Seldom is the $\pi$ repeated in the second question ; as in Judg. 14: 15, (where, however, actual contrast or opposition is designated); but where there is in reality a doub'e question, it may stand before both, 1 Sam. 23: 11. About as rare is en, before two questions in succession, as in Job 6: 12.

The indirect question is generally subject to the same rules. In a simple question, interrog. is employed after verbs of questioning, of doubt, of overseeing, when it $=$ whether. E. g. Gen. 8: 8. Ex. 36: 4. Sometimes $E \mathbb{N}$ is used; Cant. 7: 13. 2 K. 1: 2. In disjunctive cases, we find
 13: 18. The formula Ex シִּ tive sense $=I$ know that, Esth. 4: 14.

In regard to adverbs, which are used in questions about time, place, and condition, see $\S 147,5$.

For the sake of animating questions, ity is introduced, § 120, 2. Also
 now? Is. 22: 1. Job 17: 45, אiפx ה w, where now?
3. The affirmative answer, as in Latin, is given by virtually repeating the precticate of the question; e. g. Gen. 27:24. 29: 6. Judg. 13: 11. The negative answer is made by $\times 3$, Gen. 19:2.

## § 151. <br> Of Prepositions.

1. The simple* prepositions designate, like adverbs, for the most part and originally, space-relations; then, those of time, ground, cause, occasion, and other intellectual relations. Prepositions of place designate either a quiet resting in it, or a moving from or to a place. Of the first class, some are employed after verbs of motion; but of the last class, seldom are any employed to designate resting in a place.
Prepositions of Place. (a) For a state of rest; \#in, on; 3\# on, up-
 with, by, near ; בַּבַּ , (properly at a distance from ...), specially behind, around, ( $\mu \mu \varphi i) ;$; בֵּ
 unto, even to; and besides these, also in in the sense of on to, upon, on to.
(c) Many of the prepositions already named, are at the same time em-

 the proportion or measure); with, together with; sint , wextept,
 ward), for, because of.
2. Great dexterity and much acuteness does the Heb. language develope, in the compounding of prepositions. Particularly does it set prepositions of motion before other local prepositions, in order to designate local relations, which have either existed, do now exist, or will take place. (So in French: de chez, d'auprès). $\dagger$ Thus,
 above; from with; מֵּ id. ; pron from under.
 of; ; 子
[^111]Further; compound prepositions which have gone over by usage into adverbs, become prepositions again, by putting ?, more rarely $i \nmid$, after them.


 from $=$ vithout.

These connecting prepositions may also stand before; e. g. לְבַּ בִּ =


3. Let us now go through with some of the most frequent, and at the same time most variously significant, prepositions, pointing out their meaning so as to aid the right understanding of their connection with verbs, and with some of the most important idioms.
(a) Beth ( 3 ) has the greatest variety of meaning, among the prepositions. It means, (1) Properly, condition as being in a place, ( $\varepsilon v)$; thence in time, then in these or those circumstances; e. g. . lation to a multitude, it means among ; as among the nations. In relation to enclosed boundaries, within; as
 seldom it may have any of these significations after verbs of motion $=$ sis, (like ponere in loco). It should be remarked, that the Hebrew says: $(\alpha)$ To drink in a cup, (for what is therein); Gen. 44: 5. (So in Arab., and also Chaldee. Dan. 3: 2. So in Xenophon Anab. VI. 1. 4, $\dot{\varepsilon} \nu$ логrgien - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v$ £gva(̣ $\pi i \nu \varepsilon \iota \nu$, and so Ezra 3: 6. With Florus, in ossibus bibere; French, boire clans une tasse). ( $\beta$ ) In the manner, in the rule, for after the manner, according to the rule, (comp. Ev đuf vó $\mu$, hunc in modum). Thus , בּד to the counsel of Jehovah; Gen. 1:26, after our image, aftur our likeness,
 tor his own likeness.' Somewhat different in Gen. 21: 12, 'In Isaac (קִּיָּ), after Isaac shall thy seed be named.' Special attention is due, $(\gamma)$ To the passages, where the grammarians assume a so-called essentiae, which we must translate by as, and the Latin by tanquam ; e. g. Ex. f: 3,
 striking is this idiom, when $\geq$ is put before a predicate-arljective after the verb to be, (for then it means, to carry one's self as being what the predi-

[^112] Ex. 32: 22, 'Thou knowest this people, in baseness); Job 23: 13, 'he is בְָּׁ an only one,' (lit. in oneness). In Arabic this idiom is very frequent; (see Ges. Thes. p. 174).
(2) Beth (크) designates location at a place =in it. E. g. $\quad$. тог $\mu \mu \tilde{\omega}$, at or by the river, Ezek. 10: 15; ; in the eyes, = before or
 [or extension], and then means simply $t 0$, (not in the sense of $3 \times$ towards without marking arrival, nor of unto marking arrival), but that of touching, grazing upon, reaching to, and the like; e. g. Gen. 11: 4, 'a tower


After verbs of motion, and such as are analogous to them, stands before the object of them, (where in Latin $a d$ or in would be employed); e.g. צִּ
 In respect to the last verbs, $\underset{i}{ }$ often implies the adsignification of sympathy, of pleasure or pain, with which one sees and hears; as in Gen. 21: 16, 'I could not look upon (ְֵֵרֶה בְּ) the death of the child.' The metaphysical sense, which springs from the use of as exhibited above, is that of in respect or reference to, concerning (Germ. über); as $\underset{\sim}{\square} \boldsymbol{\Pi}$ sure in respect to anything.

To the idea of proximity very naturally attaches itself that of with, in respect to association, aid, instrument ; e. g. Gen. 32: 11, 'with or by my slaff ( host,' i. e. by thine aid. It should be noted, also, that verbs of coming and going with $¥ \frac{9}{\text { alter }}$ them, denote a bringing, a coming with something; e. g. Judg. 15: 1 , 'Samson visited his wife with a kid'' ("גבּבְ), i. e. he brought a kid, etc. Deut. 23: 5.
(b) לֵֵ. This means upon ( $\dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\xi}$ ), on ( $\varepsilon \pi i$ ); often transferred to motion toward anything, over it, and stands [in this respect] nearly related to $\geq$. With the meaning on, upon, it stands with verbs designating what is onerous, burdensome, (prop. to lie hard upon); e. g. Is. 'they are a burden (‘륵) upon me;'Job 7: 20. So in verbs signifying to lay upon, commit to (לֵּ also to spare, pily, as חָּ חin .

To these meanings must be added that of towards, according to, agreeably to, (a tropical sense, taken from the exemplar or type whereon one lays anything in order to fashion it). Also it has the meaning for the sake of, on account of, (comp. Lat. ob, and Germ. darob); and even that of although, [see Ges. Lex. לシュ. B.] With the meaning over, it stands frequently associated with verhs of covering and protection, as make a protection over. The like, also, in ideas that stand related to this;


It also denotes on, by, principally when one object rises up over another; as Eny hy the sea; but sometimes also like on the side. Conceived of in respect to motion, it means towards, off to, anything; so that, in the later Hebrew, and in poetry, it often $=3 \times$ and $\}$. See Job 6: 27. 19:5.22: 2. 33: 23.
(c) $i$ ——marks motion or removal from anything. The fundamental meaning is that of separation from a whole, of origin, derivation. As a const. state of a noun, $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{m} \\ & \text { indicates part or part of anything. Hence the meaning out of }\end{aligned}$ anything, first used to designate a part of, or that which is taken from the whole; as in our expression, to give of, to take of, the of $=$ a part of. This ground-meaning is plainest of all, when the word has the sense of some of,
 some of the blood (French du sang). The same is true of the mistaken idiom of the Hebrews and Arabians, where, with the words one, none, it stands apparently pleonastic; viz. תמֵּn in Lev. 4: $2=$ not from one, and stands for not any one, not the least part of, for it properly means a part, a piece, the least part, of anything. Comp. this seemingly difficult phraseology, in Lev. 4: 2. Deut. 15: 7. Ezek. 18: 10.

In its most usual sense of from, away from, it forms the counter-part to Kֶy and and stands not only after verbs of departing, fleeing away, from anything, but also for kindred ideas, such as being afraid of, concealing from, guarding one's self from, etc., (where we supply either of or from; the Germans use vor; the Greeks $\dot{\alpha} \pi \delta^{\prime}$, the Latins $a b$, as $\% \alpha \lambda \dot{v} \pi \tau \omega \dot{\alpha} \pi \delta^{\prime}$, custodire $a b$ ).
In transferring the particle to time, it means part of time from a period of leginning, not from the end of it, (like $\dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{o} \nu v x r o ́ s, ~ d e ~ n o c t e, ~ f r o m ~ t h e ~ c o m-~$ mencement of the night); e. g. ज̄מָ P, from the beginning of thy days, Job 38: 12.-It also means immediately after or from, (like $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { k } \\ \kappa\end{array}\right)$
 =

On the use of this preposition to designate rest on the side of anything, where only a proximate removal from an object is marked, (like prope abesse $a b$, pendere ex aliqua re), see ahove, $\$ 147,1$. In respect to the use of for comparison, see $\$ 117,1$.
(d) $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{k}}$, $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{k}}$, (prop, regions, directions, hence towards), marks motion or direction tovards anything, both in a physical and intellectual sense, whether one reaches the mark or not. In the former case $=7$; e. g.男, to his very mouth; sometimes it means even penetration into a


Seldom, and only catachrestically, (yet in cases that admit of no doubt), is it employed to designate resting in a place; e. g. Jer. 41: 12, 'they


 say：at home，at Leipsic，etc．；but］the German zu Hause，zu Leipzig， etc．
 metaphorical senses；e．g．to anything，and hence a sign of the Dative，and also for the Gen．of possession，$\$ 113,2$ ．Then come in respect to，on ac－ count of，for the good of，any one．Such a Dativus commodi，specially in later Hebrew and in conversation style，is pleonastically added to many verbs，particularly to the Imper．mode；e．g．䂆角，go，up with thyself！角 the solecisms of later times，（as ofien in Syriac），belongs the placing of ？ before the Accusative ；e．g．\}? before the Acc. in Lam. 4: 5. [al. see Ges. Lex．$\frac{3}{2}$, 4．c．Quaere，is not this borrowed from the Inf．complement of a verb with ？prefixed？See § 139，2．］
Quite frequent，specially in poetry，is 子 put before a place of rest or abode，
 Respecting its use with the Passive，and passive ideas，see $\$ 140,2$.
（f）Kaph（which，as an adverb，means about，somewhat），as a prepo－ sition means as，and marks resemblance．When doubled，$\underset{\sim}{3}$ ，it means as－so，and also so－as，e．g．Gen．44：18．In later writers，zְ－7 means according to－agreeably to or like as，used in respect to the conformity of a thing to rule．

In designations of time，it means about．A pleonastic 3 ，or Kaph veri－ tatis（as grammarians speak），is nowhere to be found with certainty．Ev－ erywhere the comparative meaning finds place．The word is in－ deed equivalent to aperpat properly it means，like a very small thing． So in Neh．7：2，＇he was hap wex as a true man（must be）．＇

4．If in poetic parallelism a preposition stands in the first member，it can，（like a negation，$\S 149,3$ ），be omitted in the second corresponding member．

 12．So too in respect to 3 ；Job 34：10．Is．28：6．So as to $\mathfrak{7}$ ；Gen．49： 25．Is．30：1．Also as to ming Is．61： 7.
N．B．The commonly received and numerous ellipses of all possible prepositions，is altogether uncritical．Even those passages where one com－ monly supplies $\underset{\text { an }}{ }$ ，particularly after $\underset{\text { ？}}{ }$ ，are to be explained by the adverbial Acc．，or else by an Acc．governed by a verb；to say nothing of many cases which actually belong to the Nominative，although they have been reckoned here．

## § 152.

Of Conjunctions.

1. When we sum up all the conjunctions, which frequently are of a compound nature, it appears that the Heb. language exhibits not a little of richness and of the figurative, in proportion to its simplicity elsewhere. This is manifest from its power of forming conjunctions out of most of the prepositions, by joining on to them wִּ not employed all the means furnished by the language, for the exact determination of the relation of sentences and clauses,* and often have they employed imperfect means of connecting. Hence the many meanings which a few favorite conjunctions have, (viz. ! , them in the western languages, which do not always allow of so loose a connection as is frequent in the Hebrew. (See No. 3 below).
I. Vav. Of the most extensive meaning is $\%, \%(\$ 102,2$, comp. Ges. Thes. I. 393 seq.)
(a) Properly and predominantly the copulative and, in the connecting of words as well as sentences.

In the junction of three or four words, it either stands between all; or the last, (Gen. 13: 2. 2 K. 23: 5); more seldom between only the first, (Ps. 45:9). In certain formulas it is usually left out; as yesterday [and] the day before yesterday, (Ex. 5: 8). In like manner, in animated description, accompanied by strong feeling, (constructio asyudeta). Judg. 5: 27, between her feet he bowed down, fell, was prostrate. Job 20: 19. Cant. 2: 11. 5: 6. Is. 26: 17.
(A) In the connecting of words, Vav (!) is sometimes used in an ExEgetical way, (like isque, et quidem); e. g. 1 Sam. 28: 3, inּ in Rama, even his native city. 2 Sam. 13: 20. Amos 3: 11. 4: 10. Sometimes this connection is such, that the second noun with a (!) before it,

 thy sorrow and thy conception,' in the sense of thy sorrowful conception, or the sorrow of, etc., i. e. the sorrow with which childbearing is accompanied.
(B) In the connecting of sentences and clauses, Vav is, (1) Partly continuative, and corresponds to the English then (Germ. dann, da) before the after-cluuse,

[^113]and after an absolute limitation of time; e. g. Gen. 3: 5, ' in the day that ye

 the specific limitation of time, 1 Sam. 12: 15]. (2) Partly climactic ; e. g. Job 5: 19, 'in six troubles will he deliver thee, shall not touch thee.' (3) $l t$ is comparative, i. e. it is employed between the members of a comparison $=$ and so, and thus ; e. g. Job 5: 7, 'Man is born to trouble, as (9) the sons of lightning [birds of prey] fly aloft.** So also in Job 12: 11. 34: 3. Prov. 17: 3. 25: 3, 25, [al. saepe].
(b) Vav is oftentimes employed where contrast is intended, $=$ and yet, and still. E. g. Judg. 16: 15, 'wherefore dost thou say: I love thee, and still thy heart is not with me '? Gen. 15: 2. 18: 13 , [al. saep.].
(c) Vav stands in a causal connection, i. e. before a clause giving a ground or reason; where we mostly employ since. E. g. Ps. 5: 12, 'Let all who trust in thee rejoice, forever let them sing, "חָ
 lit. and I am God, i. e. that 1 am God. Gen. 20: 3, 'Thou art about to die . . . for she ( $\mathbf{N}$ (!ְְח) is the wife of another man.' [And thus oftentimes].
(d) In deductive or consequential clauses; and then it corresponds to our there-
 therefore turn ye.' Even at the beginning of a sentence this Vav may stand, in case it is only a conclusion from something which precedes; e. g. 2 K . 4: 40, 4I, 'and they could not eat; and he said: mpernent then, or therefore, bring me some meal,' etc. Ps. 4: 4, ",ִּ, therefore know ye that etc. Ps. '̀: 6, 10. 2 Sam. 24: 3. [al. saep.].
(e) Before clauses which indicate design, intention; our that, in order that. It is then joined mostly with the Hortative and the Jussive modes, (\$ 126).
II. Scarcely less comprehensive are the two relative con-
 cause, because that. These two words are almost parallel with each other, except that ix is also and properly a pronoun relative, and may take prefix prepositions. But is more frequent as a conjunction, and is very various in its uses.

Both (like quod) are prefixed to a whole cluuse which is to be regarded as in the Acc., and as governed by a foregoing active verb. Before the Acc. particle is often found; e. g. Josh. 2: 10, we have heard that the Lord hath dried up, i. e. we have heard that thing, viz.

[^114]

(a) With this is connected the use of before direct speech, (like ötu of the Greeks, which see in Lex.). Seldom is אֲשֶׁר employed in such a connection; as in 1 Sam. 15: 20. [In such cases, these particles, in written language, amount merely to our ("), the sign of quotation].
(b) These particles are often used to designate time $={ }_{o}^{\circ} \tau \varepsilon$, (prop. at the time) that, (at the time) when, and therefore $=$ when, at which time. This is quite distinct from Ex if, if that, then a conditional when; see many examples in Ex. xxi. Sometimes it is used in a transition to this, Job 38: 5, comp. 4: 18 [17]. [Obscure and unsatisfactory; in the first example, means provided that or since (ironical); the sccond (4:17) is merely Ex interrog.;
 frequent, but it is found in some cases ; e. g. Lev. 4: 22. Deut. 11: 6.
(c) To designate causality; = eo quod, Germ. weil, because. Written out fully they would stand thus: translated by because, for, since that $=$ fíg. If several reasons are coördinate, then we have , Is. 1:29, 30, or Job 38: 20.
(d) Only stands adversatively, after a negation $=$ but. (Strictly speaking it means for; e. g. thou shalt not marry a woman of Canaan, but (") a Hebrew woman, $=$ for thou shalt marry a Hebrew woman). Even when the negation is not, expressed, but lies merely in the sense of the passage ; e. g. after a question which contains a negative idea, (§ $150,1.2$ ), then we may translate no, but; and we may even insert, in some cases, an intensive particle, as Mic. $6: 3,4$, 'What have I done to thee ? . . I have even ( thee? No, but I brought thee out,' etc. Job 31: 18. (See on שִּ , § 2. 2.
2. The other conjunctions we shall arrange according to their significations; and with respect to those of various significations, (of which there are many), we shall give the different meanings in their connection, where they first occur. We can only take a very brief survey of them here, remitting the student to the Lexicon of Gesenius for a more ample view with exemplifications.
(a) Besides ( $(\square)$ the proper copulative, there are other adverbial copulatives; e. g. also, morcover ; and likewise the intensive or climactic $5 \mathbb{N}$, besides this, entirely, very, not only so but also. Both are once united in Lev. 26: 44. The first often designates increase of number or plurality; e. g. E. exen ex exen two ; ei even all or altogether. It is also employed to give emphasis to the worl which follows it; e. g. Gen. 29.30, 'and he loved chel indeed more than Leah,' (not also Rachel). 1 Sam. 24:12. - אַמ בִּ
properly means: it comes to this that; and thence, not to say moreover; and (according to the connection) so much the more, so much the less.
(b) is is a disjunctive, (by etymology it means free will, choice), hence or (vel), but also for aut (disjunctive or), 2 K. 2: 16. Sometimes it stands elliptically for (ix or (it must be) that, Is. 27: 5. Hence its transition into a conditional meaning, if, if however, Ex. 21: 36 (Sept. $\dot{\varepsilon} \dot{\alpha} y \delta_{\dot{\varepsilon}, \text { Vulg. }} \sin$ autem); if indeed, 1 Sam. 20: 10; which has without good reason been called in question. (Comp. on = ax —
(c) Conjunctions of time are wive, quum, when, (see above). More seldom, in the like way, the conditional particle $\mathbf{x}$, (like the German wenn for wann), when, Is. 4: 4. 24: 13.


 before, Ps. 129: 6.
(d) Causal conjunctions, or such as stand connected with the ground or


 both equivalent to , ַַ, prop. on account of the circumstance that, $=$ because that; also the emphatic (1it. for the reward that), that.
(e) Conjunctions indicating design or purpose;

 above). So (?) that, in order that (see above); and perhaps $1 \mathrm{~K} .6: 19$, ? [Before the Inf., ?, in cases not a few, might be classed here]. -With a negation, $3 \times \begin{aligned} & \text { 㥩, that not, (see in § 149). }\end{aligned}$
 (which is often an interrogative, $\S \mathbf{1 5 0}, 2$ ), marks pure conditionality, in respect to which it is doubtful, whether the thing should be regarded as happening, or not, yet leaning to the first, (if I do, did, will do). On the other hand 13 ,* with the definite meaning that the thing in question does not, or will not, take place, or at least that this is very uncertain or improbable, (as, if I should do, if I had done). Hence ex may stand, where il would be more exact, (Ps. 50: 12. 139: 8. Hos. 9: 12); but not the reverse. In particular, it is customary in assurances and conditional wishes always to em-

[^115] then let the enemy persecute me, etc. In this case, the supposition is, that the speaker must liave actually done the thing in question, in order to bring justly on himself the evil to be inflicted; [and the implication is, that hee has not done it]. So in Ps. 44: 21. 73: 15. 137: 5.

What has been said of zx and ${ }^{\text {it }}$, naturally applies when these particles are connected with a negation; in which case they take the forms, 心it 上x, x nial, when placed after the form of an oath; c. g. Tin as God lices,
 the first expression there is an ellipsis, which we occasionally find filled
 do so to me, and ceen more, if, etc. Generally, therefore, after verhs of secaring, adjuring, Eụ designates not, Cant. 2: 7. 3:5; elsewhere poeti-
 sionally go over into the conditional meaning, see above.
$(\mathrm{g})$ Concession is expressed by Ex with the Perfect, (as although I am), Job !): 15; also with the Imperf., (although I were), as in Is. 1: 18. 10: 22. — for even if.
(h) Comparison is expressed by $\mathfrak{E}$, as, quamadmorlum; in the second clatse by be omitted in the fore-clause, Is. 55: 9. Ps. 48:6. So ien is sometimes omitted in the after-clause, Obad. 5: 15. An entire agreement is denoted by שֶׁ שֶּ
(i) Particles of contrast see above, among the adverbs. Decidedly there
 prop, that if, then if; most frequently but if, (see the meaning of ${ }^{n}$ ? ahove, under lett. $d$ ) ; but when joined with ex̣ it designates connection to a verb; as Ps. 1: 1, 'Happiness to the man who walks not in the counsel of the ungodly . . (v. 2) But if (Ex Mis delight is, etc.' Finally, directly for but; e. g. Ps. 1: 4. Gen. 32: 29. - Unless Gen. 32: 27. After a negative, it means but, Gen. 39: 9. 28: 17.

In respect to interrogatives, see § 150 ; and in respect to words of wishing, desiring, and the like, see lett. $f$. above.

## 3. A certain brevity and incompleteness* of expression (see

* Rare is pleonasm and unnecessary fulness of expression; e.g. Ex. ${ }^{2}$, if, Ex. 22: 22. (Comp. the old German wenn dass, [Eng. if that], $=$ if it is that). Altogether vernacular, on the other hand, is a fulness of particles in the Chaldee; e.g. " $_{\text {- }}^{\text {- }}$
 but emphasis, which repeats ina in Lev. 26: 43; like the Germ. alldieweil, [and Eng. whereas, or because] .

No. 1) shows itself, among other things, in this, that a compound conjunction, fully expressing a relation, is not unfrequently represented by only a part of the same; which part may be sometimes the first and sometimes the second.
E. g. Instead of the full
 ר, x̌, Ex. 14: 13. 1 K. 8: 24.
4. Still further is brevity consulted, when the conjunction, which normally would connect clauses or sentences, is entirely omitted.
(a) This takes place, in conditional sentences; e. g. Gen. 33: 13, should one urge them on, (then) would they die, Job 7:20, have I sinned, what do I to ther? Gen. 42: 38.
(b) In comparisons; e. g. Ps. 14: 4, vour my people, (as) they devour bread, or (as if) they devoured; etc. Job 24: 19, drought and heat take away the snow water, (those who) sin. Jer. 27: 11.
(c) In clauses or sentences which are dependent on the relative conjunctions; e. g. Gen. 12: 13, say, mאֵ (that) my sister art thou, (usually "3 is put before such clauses). Ps. 9: 21, that they may learn (that) they are mun. Is. 48: 8, for $\boldsymbol{I}$ knew (that) thou art unfaithful. Ps. 17: 3, $\boldsymbol{I}$ have purposed, (that) my mouth shall not $\sin$. In all these cases, the clause stands properly in the Accusative, § 139. n. 2.

## § 153. <br> Of Interjections.

The interjections which mean ưo! alas!, are employed both in the outcry of wo, as well as in complaint about anything. , אֲר , connect themselves with the object of complaint

 brother. Respecting with a suffix, see $\$ 98,5$.

## EXCURSUS.

[The following Excursus are appended to the 131 h edition of Gesenins's ITehrew Grammar, but are omitted in the 14th edition by Roediger, a translation of which is contained in the preceding fages. The reason which Rocdger gives for omitintr them, is, that ' they seem to exceed the boundaries of elementary instruction.' But sure I am, that every intelligent reader of the present (irammar will thank me for preenting them to him. as they contain matter of the deepest interest in regard to the antignity of chlphebetie writin!, and the "ffinty of the old Egyptien language with the Mobreu:-S

EXCURSUS I. (Comp. §5 above).
On the Forms and Numes of Hebrew Letters, with reference to the invention of Alphabetic Writing.
It has already been remarked, $(\$ 5,1)$, that for a right understanding of the names and forms of the Hebrew letters, we must go back to the Phenician written characters, as they are the source of all alphathetic writing of hither Asia and of Europe. In them the 22 forms of letters are more or less plain imitations of sensible objects, whose names bergin respectively with the letters, while the names of the letters as sounded designate those oljects themselves.

The Phenician writing took its rise from the hieroglyphical characters. But instead of designating, (like the later kyriological witing), a complete olject, it represents only the first letter in a name. The transition from hieroglyphical writing to alphabetic, took place, as we find, very early, at lenst 2000 years before the Christian era, among the Egyptians. The oldest writing of this people was only hieroglyphical. But since this did not express the sound of the words by which objects were called, the necessity of something to accomplish this, would very naturally be felt. Hence the ingenious invention of giving to each letter ouly the sound which it harl at the begimning of the word with which it was connected, [and thus making it a representative of sound, rather than of a thing]. E. g. the hand, in Egyptian tôt, stood for $t$; the mouth (Egypt. ro), stnod for $r$. This done, alphatretic witing (phonetic hieroglyphics) was already in existence. Of this the ancient Egyptians made constant use, in connection with their ideal signs or hieroylyphics. Besides this ideal writing (hieroglyphies), used on the monuments and drawn
out in full, the Egyptians also had in use a more negligent and popular one for objects of common life, in which the forms of the other writing were greatly abridged and shortened, so that it consisted of only a few rongh sketches; and this is called hieratic writing,* [a kind of shorthand hieroglyphics].

It was very probably in view of these historical facts, that the Phenicians, (who in very ancient times were closely comnected by intercourse with the Egyptians), invented anew and much more convenient and practical alphahet. Entirely abandoning lieroglyphics, with their countless number of forms, they chose 22 signs or symbuls for the 22 consonant-sounds of their langnage. These, for the most part, were abbreviated figures of oljects, (somewhat as in the hieratic writing); yet so that the figures and mames were not borrowed from the Egyptians, but takiug their invention merely as a pattern, they proceeded to invent signs appropriate to their own language. To determine precisely at what period this was done, and where, is not now feasible, because the documents of facts are wanting. But that the Phenician writing, after the example of the Egyptian, was invented by Phenicians who lived among the Egyptians, somewhere about the period when the Phenician shepherd-kings had dominion in Egypt, must be regarded as a very probable supposition. $\dagger$

The names of the letters are Phenician, in forms somewhat different from the Hebrew ; and the explanation of them, in connection with the Phenician, is in most cases beyond doult, and only in a few is it attended with ary difficulty. Even this seems to result merely from the very abridged condition in which the forms of the letters concerned appear. The idiom of the $\mathbf{O}$. Test. does not always suffice for the explanation of them.
[The author here presents a view of the Phenician forms, and an explanation of the meaning of the names respectively. The first he could easily do, from his Phenician apparatus. But it must be omitted here, because the time and the expense necessary to have such forms engraved, entirely prevent it. The significations are given above in § $5,4.1$, where the reader may see them.-S.]

The transition from the Phenician writing to the square forms of the $\mathrm{He}-$ brew, took place gradually, and through many intermediate links. It is too extensive and manifold to be exhibited here. An immediate daughter of the

[^116]Phenician was the old Aramaean, (see Monum. Phenic. tab. 4); from this arose the Palmyrene (tab.5); and the Hebrew square-character sprung from this. The Hebrew method of writing stands related to the Palmyrene as independent or fracture-writing to ruming or juncture-uriting.

EXCURSUS II. (Comp. § 32).

## Etymological Analysis of the Personal Pronouns.

Already, (in a Note above on $\$ 32$ ), has the striking resemblance of the Hebrew pronoums to the ancient Egyptian ones heen mentioned. What we here design is, briefly to carry this through, hecause, in this way, some important considerations will present themselves, that have respect to the rise of the pronoms and their etymological analysis; and this will throw light on other phenomena of the language. Several of them agree with ohservations which Hupfeld has made only by the aid of analogy in the Semitic langnages, (Zeitschr. f. d. Morgenl. II. s. 124 seq. and s. 427 seq.). In this way his remarks will receive still stronger confirmation.

The ancient Egyptian Pronouns are here suljoined; in respect to which it should he remarked, that those printed in capitals represent the letters as given in the ancient writing; the vowels (represented by small letters) are borrowed from the Coptic.

| Sep. Pronoun. | Suffix. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1. ANoK | AI |
| 2. m. eN ToK | K |
| 2. f. eNTo | T |
| 3. m. eNToF | F |
| 3. f. eNToS | S |
| Pl. 1. ANaN | N |
| 2. eNTOTeN | TeN |
| 3. eNTSeN | SeN |

The general parallelism with the Hebrew must strike every observer. We will, therefore, only add the following remarks:
(1) The separate pronouns in general are composed from the appropriate germ of the Pronoun, and a prefix-syllable, an, ant, ent, which must have had a demonstrative meaning, and served to give to very short words more body and more force. We have then: an-ok. 2. ent-ok, ent-o (probably made by dropping the $k$ ). 3. ent-of, ent-os. Plur. 1. an-an. 2. ent-oten. 3. ent-sen.
(2) The same prefix-syllable, (at least $a n$ ), the pronouns have in Hebrew, in the first two persons; viz. an-oki, an-i. 2. an-ta (kiudred form, an-ka), fem. an-ti, an-t. Plur. an-ahhnu. 2. an-tem, an-ten. The third pers. has it
not in the biblical idiom; but in the Talmud, ẉֵ is used for he, very fre-

(3) If one compares the essential parts of the pronominal forms in both languages, it will be seen that the third pers. plur. sen and the Hebrew hem, hen, correspond; as in Greek, $\tilde{v} s$ and $\sigma \tilde{v} s$, and so the Latin sus. So in the sing., of (whence comes $\hat{u}$ ), fem. os, answer to the slender $h u, h i$. In the forms of, os, the vowel o stands before the essential part, in Hebrew behind it, (comp. nt and rș). The same is exhibited in other forms; as in the Heb, an-oki. We shall see, in the sequel, another mark thereof in the Heb. conjugations.
(4) The demonstrative prefix-syllable, an, in, ( $心$ ), has a plain analogy with the Hebrew in see! And it may have been omitted in the third person origimally, because one could not well refer to this as present. Plainly do we find the same again, in the Heb. so-called Nun epenthetic, (\$57, 4. n.), e. g. $y^{c} b h a-r^{-k h e n}-h u$; and there is scarcely room for doubt, that this syllable belongs to the pronoun. In Egyptian, it sounds fuller in some of the forms -ent (with appended $t$, whose demonstrative power is shown by Hupfeld, ut sup. 135. 437). This ent, (also et), is in Coptic a relative for which; and so enta in the Aethiopic; plainly, however, like all relatives, originally demonstiative. As such the Hebrew has it in its rs and rix, (see §35, n. 2. § 115,1 n.). With suffix, it is isk, he and him, EnTs (Egypt. ent-sen), with weakening and letting drop the Vun in the middle of the word; like to รก out of Лมูู, § 19, 2. 5.
(5) Inınediately behind the prefixed demonstrative, and at the beginning of the pronoun, we find an o (probably by change of sound made from $\alpha$ ); as ent-oten, $y \in$; ant-ok, thou, Heb. an-oki. Is there not a remuant of this re-
 did not this o originally belong to the pronoun, as much as the Nun epenthetic? Analogy speaks for it; and by the remarks adduced in $\S 66,4$, the appearance is not explained differently, at least for verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$. The ( $\because-$ ) in Man very appropriately be explained as being virtually the first syllable of

## PARADIGMS

OF THE

## PRONOUNS AND VERBS.

[In the edition of Roediger, the Paradigms of the Verbs are printed as here, with the exception of the asterisks which he has affixed to all the forms which he calls normal, i. e. forms after the model of which the other forms are composed. An attentive consideration of this subject has led me to the full persuasion, that this is more of a hindrance than a help to the beginner; and others do not need it. Much better is it to teach the learner in what way the root of the rerb is modified as to vowels in regular verbs, and rowels and cousonants in irregular ones, hy the formative-suffixes and prefires: and also by the various conjugations. This will give him a clear insight into the essential constitution of a verb, in all its developments.-S.]


[^117]| Prono |  | 289 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| or Suffix of Verb. | Genitive of Pron Noun (Pron | houn or Suffix of possessive). |
| B. <br> With Nun demonstrative. $4 \geq \geq$ ? | A. <br> To a Noun Singular. $\rightarrow$ - mine. | $B$. <br> To a Noun Dual and Pl. - _ mine. |
| $T \geqslant,(T ⿻)$ <br> (occurs not) | $\left.\begin{array}{r} 7, \overline{7}, \text { in } \\ \text { pause } \overline{7} \frac{2}{\%} \\ 7,7-(7-2) \end{array}\right\} \text { thine. }$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \pi \frac{\pi}{\pi} \\ \pi \geq \end{array}\right\} \text { thine. }$ |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 4-7-, 4 \cdots \cdots * \\ & \text { his. } \\ & -n \geq \text { her. } \end{aligned}$ |
| $72>$ |  | 9-\% our. |
| These forms occur not. |  |  |
|  | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \pi \pi ; \square \\ i n \div \\ 7 \pi, i \pi, 9- \end{array}\right\} \text { thcir. }$ |  |

[^118]
apocopate Impf. (Jussive).



Suffixes. 1 Sing. 2 Sing. m. 2 Sing. $f .3$ Sing. m.

3. $f$.
2. m. .
2. $f$.


2. m. .


Imp. Kat.


Plur. 3. m.


3 Sing. f. 1 Plur. 2 Plur.m. 2 Plur.f. 3 Plur.m. 3 Pl.f.

חקטְ
? P -

ק

ק

四


-
? ? ?


|  | Kal． | Niphal． | Hiphil． | Hophal． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．3．m． | －\％ | －\％\％ | Tים | Tロングィ |
| 3．$f$ ． | עוּ | － |  | －－n\％ |
| 2．$m$ ． | \％ |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ | กา |  | คทィy\％ |
| 1. | ¢Tต\％ | ַנעׁ |  | － |
| Plur． 3. | ע\％ | נֶעִ | 4－9\％9\％ |  |
| 2．$m$ ． | ロตําข | ロ－ฺ\％ | ם－TM |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ | \％ | \％ | 75ワロット |
| 1. | ע\％ | \％ | \％ |  |
| Inf． | － |  |  | ーロック |
| Inf．absol． | －1ヶ\％ | －\％y | － |  |


| Imp．m． | －\％ | PiTa |  | － |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| J． |  | 号！ | ！ | － | wanting． |
| Pl．m． | \％\％ | － | －ค\％ | 4－י！ |  |
| f | － | － | － | － |  |
| Impf．3．$m$ ． | －ทジท | Pin？ |  |  | ヤマข |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | P17\％ | ， | － | T－ |
| 2．$m$ ． | －\％ | Fing | 团 | 7－ | －\％ |
| 2．$f$ ． | － | ＂ |  | － | －ד\％． |
| 1. | －\％ | pins | －\％\％ | － | \％ |
| Plur．3．m． | － |  | ¢－\％\％ | － | \％ |
| 3．$f$. ． |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2．m． |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2． $\mathrm{f}_{\text {¢ }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1. | －\％ | Ping |  | ーロッジア | －\％\％ |
| apoc．Impf．（Jussive）． |  |  |  | -צּמּד |  |
| Part．act． |  |  | \％ |  | － |
| pass． |  |  |  |  |  |


| Kal． | Niphal． | Piel． | Pual． | Hithpael． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．3．m． | ִִּux | בֵּרֶד | 2 | T |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | \＃． | ב |  |
| 2．m．טִ | ？ | กวํา | ב | － |
| 2．$f$ ． | 习习习习 | ＂习习 | Tַว่า | า |
| 1．טํา | ？ | בִּרַ |  |  |
| Plur．3． 3 שִׁרֶּ | ？ִִשִׁ | 13 | 3 | 1วาวร่ |
| 2．m． | ？ | ם בּרַํา | －5 | ¢ |
| 2．f． | ？ | ¢ | T⿵冂 | กวาว |
| 1．טִּ | ว | 永 |  | ก |
| Inf． | דִ？ | \％ | 习习 | 25 |
| Inf．absol． | פִun | 习1า |  |  |


| mp．m． | － | דִּun | 7 73 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | ？ |  |  | －วารก |
| m． | نׁ\％ | ד？ | 1วา |  |  |
|  |  | － |  |  |  |
| Impf．3．m． |  |  | 1. | Tา | า2 |
| 3．$f$ ． | ¢ |  | 7ר， | \％$\square^{\text {an }}$ | T7． |
| 2．m． |  | － | 77？ | T | －7 |
| 2．f．${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |  | ¢ִּ | ִיד． | ！ | วาอ |
| 1. | אูง | א\％ |  | Tマニง |  |
| ur．3．m．${ }^{\text {a }}$ \％ |  | － | บา |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． \％． |  |  |  |  |  |
| ก－ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | － | － | － |  |  |
|  | ִִישְׁn |  | נברד |  |  |




| 296 |  |  | ［ $F$ ］Verb |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kal． | Niphal． | Piel． |
| Perf．3．m． | กอֹ | ִִuׁb | － |
| 3．$f$ ． | －nibu | －n¢ | －nto |
| 2．m． | กセジャ | ภฺก゙ข | กาก |
| 2．$f$ ． | กゼセ | คกร์ | รกT |
| 1. | บรฺร์บ | ดกゼข | คกร่บข่ |
| Plur． 3. | หส่บช์ | ¢ํา | ¢ |
| 2．$m$ ． | ローム |  | 口以下比 |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  | \％ |
| 1. |  |  | บํา |
| Inf． | ゼン |  | T3 |
| Inf．absol． | กi้ | ¢ִׁ\％ | T－ |
| Imp．$m$ ． | שׁׁ | ก－ | Ti |
|  | ִִִ | － | －¢ |
| Pl．m． | ִִּ |  | －ッゼ |
| $f$. | －¢ | － | － |
| Impf：3．m． | กรฺท |  | － |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | ก3\％ |  |
| 2．$m$ ． | กอย์ | ก－ | T¢ |
| 2．$f$ ． | － | ¢תִּ | － |
| 1. |  | N00 | กゼญ |
| Plur．3．$m$ ． | 勺n\％ |  | 勺ก่บบ่า |
| 3．$f$ ． | － |  |  |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | 勺สํา\％ |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | －¢ | － | －刀T－ |
| 1. | กอบข่า | \％ | กอบ |
| apoc．Impf．（Jussive） |  |  |  |
| Impf．with Suff． |  |  |  |
| Part．act． | กิ่ | \％ | מטִּ |
| pass． | שׂ่ |  |  |


| Gutturalis |  | 297 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pual． | Hiphil． | Hophal． | Hithpael． |
| ¢ | ה！ | ก゙ை |  |
| －n¢ |  | －miour | －ntomen |
| カnic | รーゼッ | ภーデサ |  |
| 勺n¢ | ワージッ | ¢ก⿺𠃊 | กา－¢ |
| Mッロ゙ |  | ッセラッセ |  |
| ช－ |  | －－－ | งกรู\％ |
| ロッก | コロージャ | －sn＊＊ | ロ－ntorn |
| －nワ | 际盛 | mrin |  |
| 勺－ | － 2 － |  |  |
| － |  | กジサ | － |
|  | ก－ |  | －！ |


|  | ก |  | ח－m |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （wanting） |  | （wanting） |  |
| － |  | K－un | กร่า |
| M $\square^{2}$ | ก゙ロ |  | M\％s |
|  | 下－ | กวบ |  |
| －rys | － | 以边 |  |
| ワ | ワ1\％ | M－\％ | ก¢5 |
| カージท | 4－ | 9กジ\％ |  |
| ー－T゙um |  | ーロージ¢ |  |
| 旳施品 |  | 勺ッ\％ | ¢ |
| －ローッ゙ | ーシバィ¢ | ה－ |  |
| กรบ | อַ2 | －\％ | － |

nive



| 20ำ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | ＂ |  |
| \％¢\％ | 2\％ |  | コフัํา |


|  | Kal． | Niphal． | Hiphil． | Hophal． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．3．$m$ ． | บูู | \％ | บ？ | －190 |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | ִִּנְּד | กบ์ไ！ | กบ่มี่ |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | ว | \％ | Tu |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | \％ | ฺําก | กセํา |
| 1. | （regular） | ִִ | ¢ | บรู\％ |
| Plur． 3. |  | ¢ִּ | \％ | חּ |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | ִִּ |  | ם． |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | 9ַ19x | \％ | 9－3n |
| 1. |  | ¢ִ1 | \％ | － |


| Inf． | \％ | ＂ | － | －ִגִ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Inf．absol． | บํา | דִכֶּנשׁ | \％ |  |
| Imp．m． | U1 | －9\％ | บ\％ |  |
| $f$ | － | ！ | － |  |
| Plur．m． | $4{ }^{1}$ | ¢ דִּ |  | （wanting） |
| $f$ | － | － | － |  |
| Impf．3．m． | \％ |  | － | 419 |
| 3．$f$ ． | ［ |  | บํา | － |
| 2．m． | － |  | บ込 | U |
| 2．$f$ ． | ¢תּ |  | － |  |
| 1. | บูู | （regular） | \％ | －\％ |
| Plur．3．m． | 勺ッ์ |  | － | ¢ |
| 3．$f$ ． | － |  | תַּנְ | － |
| 2．$m$ ． | ¢ |  |  | 勺งก |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  |  | ¢ת |
| 1. | ִַx |  | ַַגִּישׁ | ַנx |

apoc．Impf．（Jussive．）

## ש：

| Part．act． | ¢ ¢ | ขึ！ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pass． | \％ |  |


（like Verbs first Guttural）

| $\ln f$ ． <br> Inf．absol． | Bon | nexn | － | 3－xir |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imp. m. |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sonet } \\ & \text { (etc.) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Tond } \\ & \text { (etc. } \end{aligned}$ | （wanting） |
| Plur．m． $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| Impf．3．m． <br> 3．$f$ ． |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SDN. } \\ & \text { (etc.) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { לnn } \\ & \text { (etc. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SUN" } \\ & \text { (etc.) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 2．$m$ ． | ת⿵冂⿰入入 |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | －¢5 |  |  |  |
| 1. | 32i |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．m． 7 － |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| 1． | נֹאכֹ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Part．act． | N | g | מיֵּ | 3 \％ |
| pass． | \％ |  |  |  |


apoc．Impf．（Jussive．）
Impf．with Vav consec．ニที่
Part．act． pass．

| コセビ | บข่บ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |


| Hiphil． | Hophal． | Kal． | Hiphil． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| הוִֹֹים | הוֹשׁׁz | （regular） | תִיִטים |
|  | הוּשׁׁה |  |  |
|  |  |  | ถֵ |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | － |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | הויטֶּבְּם |  |  |
| ה－ | הרוֹשִ－ |  | （1） |
|  |  |  |  |
| חוֹטִִיב | ה－וֹשֵ | 20？ |  |
|  |  | 210ำ |  |
| הוִֹֹׁב | （wanting） | 2יטַ2 | חֵיִֵּ |
|  |  | ？ |  |
|  |  | － |  |
|  |  | － |  |
| יוִִֹים |  | 20יַ？ | תיִיִים |
| תוִֹֹים | תnּ | ִִּיטֵּ | תֵתִיִִים |
| ת |  |  |  |
| ת｜ |  |  |  |
| אוִִֹּ2 |  |  |  |
|  | יוּטִבף |  |  |
| － | ת |  |  |
| 水 | תוּׁט |  | ¢תֵּ |
| － | － | 为 |  |
| נִִֹֹים | פוֹשַׁ | 2ִיטַ2 | ֵיִיִים |
| 2 |  |  | 2יֵיֵ2 |
| コセทำ |  | 2unpl | ！！ |
| 2 | 2 | 209\％ | מיטִים |
|  |  | 2\％ |  |


| 304 | ［ $M$ ］Femble ${ }^{\text {derbs }}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kal． | Niphal． | Hiphil． | Hophal． |
| Perf．3．m． | 昭 | －1p | היקים | דויקם |
| 3．$f$ ． | Ther | －隹？ | － | － |
| 2．m． | जnp | 3 |  | 5nern |
| 2．f． | TMP | ת | תimprin | Sppin |
| 1. | Nap | נִ | \％ |  |
| Plur． 3. | 1哏 | 12\％ | \％ | הירֶ |
| 2．m． | บmp | ？ | דים\％ | Mrent |
| 2．f． | Tmp | ？ |  | P17 |
| 1. | \％ | ？ | תִקים | Tr |
| Inf． | 81p |  | 口 | 9pl |
| Inf．absol． | ap | 口涫！ |  |  |
| Imp．m． | Q | 口ip | 㖿 |  |
| $f$. | קירֶים | 㖠？ | 葹 |  |
| Plur．m． | ק |  | 草 | （wanting） |
| ， | － | ！ | Ton |  |
| Impf．3．m． | ロT？ | ロip？ | ם | － |
| 3．$f$ ． | 二ทrs | 口1pm | － | －29 |
| 2．$m$ ． | ם | $\square \mathrm{F}$ 限！ |  | － |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | 限品 | תner | 97 |
| 1. | 极 | 口ifs | אֵקִים | PR |
| Plur 3．m． | 成鞂？ | 隹？ | \％ | －1\％ |
| 3．f． | － | － | － | － |
| 2．$m$ ． | 号 | \％129， |  | （19\％留 |
| 2．$f$ ． | － |  | ¢ |  |
| 1. | ם？ | Qip？ | ם P？ | 1 |
| apoc．Impf． | Ep |  | － |  |
|  |  |  | － |  |
| Impf．with Suff：Minpl？ |  |  |  |  |
| Part．act． | ap | － | היקים | 9\％ |


| Pilel． | Pulal． | Kal． | Niphal． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \％ | 口 | בּ3 | נִ |
|  | \％ | 䍖 | － |
| P1pan |  | בִּיצוֹת | － |
| קוֹpuphen | Fipaip | בינוֹת | － |
| P\％ | Mnimp | בִינוֹתִית | גבוּ1כוֹתי |
|  | ק | 率 | 10 |
| ם | קוֹp |  | גְבינוֹתם |
| ק | Tmpaip | דיִ | גְבּנוֹתָּ |
|  | Majp | בִיצוֹנו |  |
| קוֵֵֹ | Enip |  |  |
| piporn |  | ביִין |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | （wanting） | 1ax | （as ■ip！ |
| 年 |  | － |  |
| － | ם1p： | ！ | TiP？ |
|  | 口מוֹת | תָּנִין |  |
| ם | Enips | תִּבִּן | （as Dip？ |
|  |  | תֵּנִינִ |  |
| ＝nip | － | אֵּיֶן |  |
| \％atip？ | 成碞？ | רִלִיִוּ |  |
| － | － | ？ |  |
| mairm | ） |  |  |
| תnernen | － |  |  |
| 口 | Exp |  |  |
|  |  | יִי |  |
|  |  | ？ |  |
| מ\％ | מֶpוֹדמם | בּוּ | נִּוֹT |


| 306 |  | ［O］Feeble Verbs |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kal． | Niphal． | Piel． |
| Perf．3．m． | \＄ | ¢ִ？ | N\％ |
| 3．$f$ ． | － | － | －\％ |
| 2．$m$ ． | ת心荡 | פִ． | ص． |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | ¢ | ？ |
| 1. | － | ¢ ¢ ¢ | － |
| Plur． 3. | \％ |  | ¢ |
| 2．$m$ ． | מצדת | נִִ | ¢ |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ |  | ص\％ |
| 1. |  | 9\％ | \％ |
| Inf． | ！nı |  | 20 |
| Inf．absol． |  |  |  |
| Imp．m． | N＂מ\％ |  | N哭 |
| $f$. | ¢\％ | ＂ |  |
| Plur．m． |  |  | － |
| $f$. | － | － |  |
| Impf．3．m． | ぶ™ | ？ | バロ゙ロ |
| 3．$f$ ． | N－5\％ | N－5\％ | N－2\％ |
| 2．$m$ ． | N了¢ | N－5\％ |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | ］－ |  | ＂ |
| 1. | N＂M | N－ | N－ |
| Plur．3．m． | － | 5＂\％9 | 90\％ |
| 3．$f$ ． | －－ | － | － |
| 2．$m$ ． | ¢ | 9以妥为 | \％ |
| 2．$f$ ． | － | －¢¢ | － |
| 1. | ¢ | N－ | N＂ |

apoc．Impf．（Jussive．）

| Impf．with Suff． | ？ |  | ＂ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Part．act． | מ\％ | \％\％ | ？ |
| pass． | －\％ |  |  |


| $\cdots 3$. | － | 307 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pual． | Hiphil． | Hophal． | Hithpacl． |
| N－ | N゙マイッ！ | 心32T |  |
| ー心発\％ | ーが葠品 | －ベアท゙！ | －N゙9\％\％ |
| ค心嫘？ |  | กがワー！ |  |
|  | กベゴッ！ | クバきロ！ |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 7 以 | 9が気ロ！ |  |  |
| ลรู\％ | ロรN＂M！ |  | －รN＂$\%$ \％！ |
| 7－9\％ | 95x32T！ | 75バセ？ | \％กw発上ก！ |
|  |  | クゴざッ！ |  |
|  | が9\％ワ |  | ハ－25！！ |
|  | N3\％ |  |  |
|  | N゙ッグT |  | N－3\％\％！ |
| （wanting |  |  | ¢5¢ 5 ¢！ |
| （wanting） | 9＊＂発ワT | （wan | 4N\％ |
|  | －3x |  | －¢xagn |
| N䍂》！ |  | Nざ2M |  |
| 心3\％5 | N＂\％ | N3\％รู | 小上9\％9\％ |
| N39\％？ |  |  |  |
|  | －小－\％ | ¢ |  |
| N゙3\％ | Nッヅ2N | 心3\％ |  |
| 7ベゴロ9 |  | ท心ぞロッ |  |
|  |  | －2N\％M\％ | ーゴツ |
| 9上3\％ |  | คงบร์ | า上＂ทร่ |
|  |  | － ¢以 $^{\text {¢ }}$ |  |
|  | N＂「！！ | N\％？ | \＄2\％ |
|  | N゙せッワ |  |  |
|  | －¢¢ |  |  |
| ベざロ |  |  | N－2\％ |


| 308 |  | [ P] Feeble Vefrbs |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kal. | Niphal. | Piel. |
| Perf. 3. m. | - | ִּנְּלִה | - |
| 3. $f$. | กรู | - | - |
| 2. $m$. |  | กี่า | ภ๋? |
| 2. $f$. | \% | נִנִּלית | 5 |
| 1. | - ¢To |  | - ¢̧ |
| Plur. 3. | \% | נִגִלִ |  |
| 2. $m$. | גּ | ¢ | - |
| 2. $f$. | \% | 9\% | \% |
| 1. | 4 \% | \% | \% |
| Inf. | תiba | ก | ת103 |
| Inf. absol. | - \% | - ִִ | - |
| Imp. m. | - | חה | - |
| $f$. | - | T"גT! | 4 |
| Pl. m. | 43 |  | 4里 |
| $f$. | - | ? | - |
| Impf. 3. m. | ה- | - $\mathrm{S}_{\text {an }}$ | - |
| 3. $f$. | ה- | T-390 | - |
| 2. $m$. |  | ก- ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | ก |
| 2. $f$. |  | ¢ |  |
| 1. | - |  | - |
| Plur. 3. m. | ¢! | 4 | , |
| 3. $f$. |  | - | - |
| 2. $m$. | תִּנִ |  | \% |
| 2. $f$. |  | ת-3 | - ¢Ther |
| 1. | נִנְ | - | - |
| apoc. Impf. | לֵํา | \% | \% |
| Impf. with Suff. | - |  | - |
| Part. act. | - | ִנִּלֶה | מִגְּ |
| pass. | 4, |  |  |



310 Verbs and ibs．Verbs fín and

|  | Kal． | Hiphil． | Kal． | Niphal． | Hiphil． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf． | － | הוֹרָּ | NuTV | NuTu | ＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． | กถํา | וֹרา |  |  |  |
| 2．$m$ ． | ถฺํา | － | กิ์ | รู\％ | \％ |
| 3．pl． | 4า9\％ | דורד | （as ${ }^{\text {N\％}}$ ） |  |  |
| Inf． | ภiา？ | תทาท | תง． |  |  |
| Inf．abs． | ㄲำ |  | （reg．） |  |  |
| Imp． | חר！ | הוֹרֵר | － |  |  |
| $f$ | ？？ | － | ¢ |  |  |
| Imperf． | －רํา | －74 | N゙び？ |  | N゙呂 |
| 3．pl． | \％า＂ | ¢า | \％ | \％\％ |  |
| apoc．Impf |  | － |  | （reg．） |  |
| Part．act． pass． |  | מוֹרֶה | （reg．） | (* From | not אשָׁTi）． |


| Verbs 倘 and ${ }^{\text {\％}}$ | Verb mit． |
| :---: | :---: |
| Kal．Hiphil． | Kal．Hiphil． |
|  |  |
| Impf． |  |
| 3．pl．－ |  |
| apoc．Impf．－－－ | Imp．ベコ（ |
| （the rest as |  |
|  | Hoph．הּ <br>  Part。 Nコท |

## I N D E X .

(The numbers refer to the pages of the Grammar; $n$. refers to Notes).

A-sound, 27.
Abbreviations of words, 20.
Absolute Cases, 260.
Abstract for Concrete, 150 ; expressed by the fem., 199; more usually with the article, 205.
Accents, 40 seq.
Accusative, marked by nא, 216; by $\pi-, 162$; governed by the verb, 250 seq.; double Acc., 252; adverbial Acc., 187, 188, 217, 218.
Adjective, periphrasis of it by a noun, 196, 197; when it takes the article with a noun, 209, 210; without the noun's having it, 209.
Adverbs, 187 seq.; syntax, 265 seq.; expressed by a verb, 256.
Alphabet, forms, names, and powers, of the letters, 18 seq.
Aphaeresis, 47.
Apocope, 47 ; of verbs, 139, 141.
Apposition, 212, 215.
Arabisms, 56, 80, 95, 97.
Article, 81 seq.; use made of it, Synt., 203 seq.
Aspirates, 23, 38, 39.
Assimilation, 47, 48, 105, 121.
Case-endings, remains of, 162 seq.
Chaldaisms in Hebrew, 9 seq., 11 , 90,92 ; of third pers. fem. Imperf., 95; of Piel, 104, n. 1 ; of verbs $\begin{gathered}\text { ה } \\ 3\end{gathered}$, 141; of Imperf. in verbs $5: 3,123$; of verbs 4 y, 134 ; of plural nouns, 157; of fem. nouns, 147, 148. n. Collectives, 199, 201 seq. ; syntax of them, 260 seq.
Common gender, nouns of, 198, 200.

Comparative degree, 218.
Composite ideas in the plural, 202, 203; with the article, 206; with suffix, 221 ; how constructed, 260 seq.
Compound words (unfrequent), 74, 75, 149, 187.
Conditional sentences, 279, 280 seq. Conjugations, or derived Verbs, 84, 85 ; number and order, 85,86 ; unusual conjugations, 109 seq.
Conjunctions, 193; syntax of, $27 \%$.
Conjunctive or Subj. mode, expressed by the Imperf., 234.
Consonants, sound and division of, 18 seq.;-weakened to vowels, 47.
Construction asyndic, 255, 282.
Contraction by assimilation, 47; of vowels by quiescence, 58 .
Copula, how designated, 258.
Daghesh, 35 ;-forte, 35 seq.; different kinds of, 48 seq.; not received by a Guttural, 52 ; nor by Resh, 54 ; omission of, in verbs Ayin doubled, 126.

Daghesh lene, 39 seq.; when inserted or omitted, 51 seq .
Daghesh implied (forma daghessanda), 60.
Dative Case, 216, comp. 214.
Diminutives, formation of, 156.
Diphthongs, 22, 30; how avoided, 58 seq.
Doubling of Letters, 48 ; designates intensity, 103.
Dual, 159 seq.; of numerals, 185; syntax of, 211.

E-sound, 32.
Ellipsis, of the relative pronoun, 226; of $i t$, he, 223; other ellipses, true and false, 216, 218, 220, 226, 280; of conjunctions, 281.
Epicoenes, i. e. nouns of common gender, 198.
Exchange of Consonants, 46.
Feeble letters, $V a v$ and $Y o d h, 57$.
Feminines, endings of, 147 ; vowelchanges of, 169 ; in the const. state, 161 ; plural forms, 167 seq.; other designations of, 198 seq.; use of, for abstracts and collectives, 199; fem. form of the Inf., 91, 121, 128.
Forms mixed, 145.
Future, see Imperfect.
Gaya (accent), 44.
Genitive, mode of expressing it, 160 seq.; use of the same, 213 seq.
Gentilicia or national namez, 156 ; require the article, 207.
Gender, as to subject and predicate, 258 seq.
Geographical names, 199, 200, 204 ; used in the Gen., 213.
Gerund, 92, 241, 243.
Gutturals, 21 seq. ; expel Daghesh, 50 ;-in verbs, $117-121$.

Hhateph Qamets, 37;-Seghol, 37; -Pattah, 37; the latter shorter than Hhateph Seghol, 67.
Hebrew language, 7 seq. ; monuments of it, 8 seq.; dialects of it, 11 seq.; copiousness, 12 ; grammatical treatises upon it, 13 seq.
Helping vowels, 68.
Hiphil, 105.
Hhireq, long and short, 31, 32.
Hithpael, $10 \%$.
Hholem, 33.
Homogeneous vowels, 30,57 seq.
Hortative mood, 96, 236.
Hophal, 106.
I-sound, 27 seq.
Imperative, 92 ; shortened and pro-
longed, 96 ; with suffixes, 116 ; syntax of, 239 ; substitutes for it, 232, 235, 243.
Imperfect, name, 93. n.; form and flexion, 93 seq.; shortened and prolonged, 96 ; with Vav consec., 97 seq., 234 seq. ; with suffix, 116 ; syntax of, 233 seq.; expressed by other modes, 243.
Impersonal construction, 249.
Indefinite subject to a verb, viz one, some one, etc., 249.
Indo-Germanic languages, 3. n., 73 seq., 87, 89, 101. n., 103. n., 183, Rem.
Infinitive, 91 seq.; with suff., 116; Inf. abs., 240 seq. ; - const., 243 ; with 3, 253 ; historical, 241.
Instrument, with $\frac{5}{\square}$, and in the Ace., 251, 269.
Interjections, 194, 282.
Jussive, 95 seq., 236.
Kal, form and meaning, 88.
Kethibh, 45.
Letters, liquid, 24 ; quiescent, 29,55; incompatible, 74. n.

Maqqeph, 43 seq.
Mappiq, 40.
Matres lectionis, 30. n.
Methegh, 35, 43, 69.
Milel and Milra, 41.
Modes, 86, 228.
Negation, modes of, 267 seq.
Neuter gender, wanting in Hebrew, 146, 199.
Niphal, 100.
Nouns, derivation and kinds, 145 156 ; with suffixes, 164 seq. ; declension of, 167 seq.; syntax of, 196 seq.
Nouns proper, when with the article, 205 ; with a Gen. following, 209; nouns of unity, 200 seq.
Number, in connection with subject and predicate, 260 seq.

Numerals, 182, 219.
Numeral signs, 18.
Nun, assimilates, 47 ; is demonstrative or epenthetic, 113.

O-sound, 33 seq.
Onomatopoetica, 3, 4, 72 seq.
Optative, 234, 236, 248.
Participial nouns, 150 seq.
Participle, 99 seq. ; with suffixes, 116 ; syntax of, 246 seq. ; going over into a finite verb, 247.
Passives, construction of, 256 seq.
Patronymics, 156.
Pattah, 31 ; specially accompanying Gutturals, 53; Pattah furtive, 29, 53,120 ;-in pause for Tsere or Seghol, 68, 100. n. 2;-in Piel for Tsere, 104. n. 1.
Pause, 70.
Perfect, 84, 88; with Vav consec., 97 ; with suffixes, 113 ; syntux of, 229.
Phenician and Punic, 8, 25. n.; 36. n.; 48. n. ; 82. n.;-alphabet, 5.

Piel, 102 seq.
Pleonasm, of the protroim, 223; of particles, 276 ; of negations, 269.
Plural, ending of, 157 seq. ;-of prepositions, 193; use of the plural, 600.

Pluralis excellentiae, 204; its construction, 211, 260.
Pluperfect, 229 ;-of the subjunctive, 231.

Poetic language, $9,10,109$; - suffixes, 288, 289.
Potential mode, 2:35.
Praeterite, see Perfect.
Predicate, without the article, 208; its connection with the subject, 258.
Prefixes, 191; with suff. nlso, 191, 192.
Prepositions, 189 ; syntax of, $27 \cdot 2$.
Present tense, how expressed, 229 , 234, 238, 246; Pres. Subj., 232.
Pronouns, 77 seq.;-personal, 77 seq .; -suffix, 79 seq.;-demonstrative, 80 ;-relative, 82 ;-interrogative and indefinite, 83 ; - suff. to the verb, 111 seq.;-syntax of, 221 seq.;
as suff. of verls and nouns, 222;suff. of adverbs, 188 ; suff. to prepositions, 191 ;-reflexive, how expressed, 227.
Prosthesis, 48.
Pual, 104.
Punic, see Phenician.

Qamets, 31, 34 ; distinguished from Qamets Hhatuph, 34 seq., 44.
Qeri, 45.
Qibbuts, 33.
Quadriliteral and Quinqueliteral words, 74 seq., 108.
Quiescents, see Letters.
Raphe, 23, 40.
Relation of irregular verbs to each other, 143 seq.
Relative Conjunctions, $2 \% 8$.
Relative Pronoun, 82 ; syntax of, 225.
Repetition of words, 202, 203.
Roots, 71.

Sheva, meaning of, 36. n.; simple and composite, 36-38; vocal or silent, 36 ; simple, under Gutturuls, 54 ; under guttural verlos, 118 , 119,121 ; Sheva vocal a half-vowel, 62.
Scriplio plena et defectiva, 8, 29, 30.
Seghol, 32, 67 ; before Gutturals, 53 ; before Gutturals with Qamets, 66, 67.

Segholate forms of nouns, 173 seq.; -of verbs, 140 seq.
Semitic languages, 1 seq.; relation to each other, 5 seq.
Servile letters, 72; = Hemantives, 148. Shureq, 33.
Sibilants, 22 ;-transposition of; 108.
Silluq, 41.
Square character, 17.
State absolute, when for construct, 213.

State construct, endings of the sume, 161 ; vowel changes, 161 , and also in the paradigms, $\$ 90-92$; use of the same, 213 seq., 215 seq.; when it obtains the article, 209.

Stems，different from Roots， 71.
Stem－consonants， 71.
Suffixes，see Pronoms；syntax of them， 221 seq．；light and grave， 168 seq．；170，n．
Superlative， 218.
Syllables，theory of， 60 seq．
Syriasm in punctuation， $56,58$.
Tenses，their use， 228 seq．；relative tenses， 231.
Tone or accent， 69 ；signs of tone， 41. Transposition，of letters，46， 108.
Tsere， 32.

Verbs，stems，classes，conjugations， 86 seq．；regular and irregular， 87 ； middle $.1, \boldsymbol{E}, \boldsymbol{O}, 88$ ；with suffix， 111；contract， 121 ；feeble veris， 126 seq．；－doubly irregular，143； defective，144；syntax of，2：8； with prepositions， $25 \%$ ；connection of two verbs in one idea， 254 ；imi－ tative of sounds，see Onomato－ poetica；－impersonal， 249.
Vocalization of the text， 25 seq．
Vocative，with the article， 207.
Vowel－letters，25．See also Feehle Letters．
Vowels， 24 seq．
Vowel－signs or points， 24 seq．
Words，arrangement of， 259 se！．

## HEBREW INDEX．

$\mathfrak{N}$ ，as a Consonant and Guttural，21； of the Shevas it prefers $(-), 54$ ； as a Quiescent，how treated， 55 seq．； $\mathfrak{x}$ of extension， 56,78 ．n． 6 ， 90．n．4，95．n． 4 ；－exchanged for 4，${ }^{4}, 5,55$ seq．；is dropped， 56 ．
is，conjunct．， 280.
いる゙ト ，266，c．
² ，interrog．，270．
T K ，is not， 268.
2ょ， 268.
2x， 275.
ロヘฺ，distinct froms ไ้ว，248，279， 280.
אֵּ ，as pronoun relative，82， 225 ； as relative conjunction， 278 ；שֻׁu 214.

T＊，sign of the Acc．，191，216；as prep，with， 191.
3，as prep．， 189 seq．；use of， 272.
ทท่ํํํㅡ，where，when， 226.
m，with Mappiq，40，56，137；as a feeble letter， 56.

I，article，see above under Article．
ㅍ，interrogative，188， 270.
$\pi-$ ，Hortative and Imper ending， 96,97 ；noun－euding， 162.
ぶー，※ット，78；distinct from $\pi$ ก， 224.
กדּ to be，its anomalies，140，141； with the Part．， 247 ；with ？before the lnf．， 244.
4 ，as a vowel－letter， $25,30,37$ ．
\％，copulative and consecutive，see Perfect above．
1，followed by Dagh．forte，consecu－ tive，see Imperf．above．
Hッグท， 232.
4ำ． 238.
4 ，as a vowel－letter，25，31，57．
הリ゙ゥч，190．n．
กנว่าจ9，fem．form，95．n． 3.
2，with suffix，192；meaning，272， 276.
＂3，conj．， 278.
翟 2 水

3y，with a negation，268；with a｜n2，m， 83.
noun which has，or has not，the $12-$ ，poetical appendage to prefixes， article， 209.

191 seq．

pronouns， 191 ；meanings， 276 ； 17 ，prep．，punctuation， 189 ；with sign of the Dative，216；of the suff．，192；meaning， 275 ；before Gen．， 214 ；with the Passive，be－the comparative， 218.
fore the efficient cause， 257 ；？auc－ 1 i，see $\mathcal{N}$ un above． toris， 214.
र้̇， 267 ；before verlus， 235.
42，etymology and use，280， 248.
หัว่ ，always plural， 192.
$\%$ ，sign of participle， 103 ；formative
letter in nouns， 156.
צ，sound of， 21.
วき，prep．， 274.
คที่อี่ 184．$n$ ．
7 ，as Gutturul， 54 ；doubling of the same， 54.
ゼ，praefix， 82.
5，fem．ending，147， 161.
$\because$ for H \％ 83.
－沓 for ；which see．

## A P P E N D I X

## HEBREWCHRESTOMATHY.

## § 1. <br> Introductory Remarks.

The proper olyject of a Clirestomathy in any language, is to ficilitite the progress of him who undertakes to study that language. In its appropriate sphere, it is distinct from a Commentary, where exegesis is the predominant element of the work. So far as a correct explanation of idiomatic expressions and of grammatical difficulties serves to cast light on interpretation, a good Chrestomathy partakes indeed of the exegetical element; for that a correct knowledge of idioms, of grammatical forms, and of the syintax of any language, is not only indispensable, but of the very highest importance to the interpreter, there can be no doult. But it is one thing for a book to aim simply or mainly at a development of forms and idions, and another to pursue interpretation on a broad scale, combining with the pursuit all that rhetoric, history, geography, chronology, and archaeology in general, may afford, so as to help the commentator to a thorough interpretation.

Those whose business it has been to teach languages, know well that all attempts at thorough expgesis are in vain, until the student shall have made progress enough in the knowledge of words, their forms, and their syntax, to understand and duly appreciate the remarks of an interpreter. To begin the study of Hebrew with a formal Commentary, such as the advanced student needs, would be preposterons; for it would only serve to divide and distract the attention of the learner, at a period when all his efforts should be directed to the simple object of reading and understanding the language as such.

A proper Chrestomathy is designed for purposes simply linguistic and philological. Iu other words, it should serve the purpose of making the student acquainted with the forms, the declensions, the cases, the tenses, the moods, and (summarily to speak) with all the variations of words, expressive of relation to each other, or adapted to designate time and manner. It should lead the student on in the right way to obtain the knowledge in question, up to such a point that it may be presumed he is able to make his own way without the aid of another. At this point the office of a Commentary properly hegins. Before this, it is of little or no avail; unless, indeed, the interpreter chooses to be more chrestomathic than exegetical.

If these views are correct, they will serve to justify the comse fursued in the following prages. My aim is to prepare the student to use a Commentary to advantage, by leading him on to a right knowledge of the forms and syntax of the Hebrew language. At the outset, the acquisition of such a knowledge demands the undivided attention of the learner. There are only two ways of arquiring a knowledge of any language, viz., first, the method in which children acquire a knowledge of their vernacular tongue; and secondly, the method of studying by the aid of grammars and lexicons. The first is out of question for us, in respect to the Hebrew; the second must, so far as possible, stand in the place of it. A grammar which rightly explains all the forms and syntax of words, and a lexicon which properly explains all the meanings of them, form an apparatus in itself complete for the acquisition of any language. If the grammar and lexicon of Gesenius are not perfect, (as doubtless they are not), they still approach so near to that standard, that we may rest satisfied that by their aid we may place ourselves substantially in the situation of those who had a vernacular acquaintance with the Hebrew.
It is usial, when a Chrestomathy forms a separate volume, to print the text of the language to be studied. In many cases this may be experdient. But as there is only one volume of the ancient Hebrew now extant, and as all who intend to study Hebrew in earnest must possess themselves of that volume, it seems superfluons to reprint the Hebrew text in another book, and thus to add to the expense of the Chrestomathy, without making any real addition to the apparatus of the student. On this account, and also to lessen as much as may be the lulk of this mamal, I have thought it expedient to omit a reprint of the Hebrew text, and merely to insert the notes which are designed to guide the student in the initiatory stages of his study.

It is of no consequence what portion of the $\mathbf{O}$. Test. is selected as the basis of a Clurestomathy, excepting that the higher flights of poetry, and the more difficult parts of prose should be avoided. Nothing can be more unsuitable, than to make up a Chrestomathy merely of morsels rhetorically exquisite, selected here and there, and designed more for aesthetical im-
pression, than for aid in the aequisition of linguistic knowledge. The most intelligible parts of the Bible are plainly the best for hegimers; and continnous pieces which will interest the reader by their contents, are altogether preferable to mere scraps or sentences chosen here and there, and introdned like a string of apothegms or unconnerted sayings. So much of the O. Test., moreover, is poetry, that a complete Chrestomathy ought to comprise an introduction to this species of writing, as well as to prose.

The help which I shall endpavour here to render the learncr, is such as I should proffer him, for the most part, if engaged in teaching him orelly, matil I should deem him fitted to commence the business of exegesis, ot a more enlarged scale. If I can satisfy the begimer, that he had better purste the methorl of study which I shall point ont in the sequel; and if he will actually, and patiently, and perseveringly follow it ; should unt then liesitate to assure him, that, in a moderate period of time, he may arquire both an agreeable and a useful knowledge of the Hebrew.

## § 2. <br> Sugrgestions respecting the Method of Studying Hebreu.

During the long course of years in which I have heen employed more or less in teaching this language, I have made trial of different modes of teaching, with the intention of satisfying my own mind as to the question : Which is the preferable one? The result I will give, as Iriefly as I can, no that the learner may avail himself of it, if he should think proper to do so.
The knowledge of any language is mainly comprised in three particulars, viz. a knowledge of the forms of words, of their varions meanings, and of the method in which they are counected together in making ont clanses and sentences. Without this knowledge, not a single sentence of the Heb. Scriptures, (or indeed of any other book), can be oltained in such a manner as to be relied on. He who does not know, for example, in what relation the words of the first chapter and verse of the book of Genesis stand in each other, or in what way we can determine which noun is subject, and which are objects of the sentence, cannot determine grammatically, which word in the verse is Nom. to the verb, or (in other words) he cannot determine whether the assertion of the writer means, that God made the heavens and the earth, or that the heavens and the earth made God, or that the beginning made both God and them. If any one should say, that the expression, the havens and the earth made God, is an ahsurdity, and therefore evidently not the meaning of the writer, it would he ensy to reply, that what many now deem to be the perfection of philosophy maintains, that 'if the world were not world, Gorl would not lee Gorl,'so that the heavens and the
earth are the causes of the real existence of God, or at least they are the ground or reason why God becomes a conscious being, to say the least; and a little allowance of latitude in expression to a very ancient writer, might serve to diminish the force of any alleged absurdity. As to the expression, that the beginning made both God and the heavens and earth, one might resort to Parsism and other oriental theosophy, for pretty well suited parallels with such an assertion; and he might also say, that it needs but a generous allowance of liberty to the writer, in order to make his expression tolerable, on a like ground with that of Parsism and Bhuddism.

Suppose then there is no certain guide furnished by the usages of the Hebrew, in regard to the disposition or arrangement of words in a sentence, how could the reader know with entire certainty, whether the meaning of Gen I: 1 is as our English version has given it? He could not; but as the matter now is, a knowledge of Hebrew Grammar, in the wide extent of this term, renders any sane doubt as to the meaning impossible.

So is it with nearly every verse of the Bible. A variety of arrangement as to subject, predicate, and ohject, is indeed admitted in the Hebrew; but to know this, and to know when, and how, and why, it takes place, is one of the things which Grammar teaches. To Grammar must the ultimate appeal be made in all disputed cases, the probable or possible significations of words in themselves being once known. Higher criticism and exegesis deduce their most important material from an accurate and extensive knowledge of grammar. Certain it is, that no one has a right to feel assured of the true meaning of any passage, so long as its grammatical construction is doubtful. The relations of words, and the order of their sequency, are absolutely essential to an elementary knowledge of any language.

Put the case, then, that a student of Hebrew has acquired a thorough knowledge of the forms of Hebrew words, and of syntax, (no matter whether this is done by the reading of 50 , or only of 10 chapters), that student is prepared for solid and rapid progress in the Hebrew, and has little else to do than merely to extend his knowledge of the meaning of words; which is rapidly acquired by constant reading. The toil and difficulty of his undertaking is past, and the rest of his way is only a journey of pleasure and profit. Thousands of erroneous and whimsical interpretations an accurate knowledge of grammar will enable him instantaneously to detect. The same knowledge will point out to him the true way in which he must proceed, in order to arrive at any desired point of exegesis. In a word, an accurate and extensive knowledge of Grammar, in the wide extent of the word, is to be valued more than all the systems of Hermeneutics that are extant. Not but that these are useful and important, in their place; but these all have their basis in the principles of grammar, and are worthless unless they are built upon this hasis.

Such are my views of this subject; and on these the following advice is founded. My conviction of their correctness has been increasing, ever since my mind was awakened to an carnest contemplation of them; and I have endeavoured to nake practical experiment of them, in respect to myself and my pupils.

I suppose the jerson, whom I address, to be strictly a beginner, in the present case; and to such an one I would beg leave to make the following suggestions.

The Alpiabet, and thf Yowel-signs. To become familiar with these, begin with a single letter ; inspect the form carefully; write it down with your pen some twenty or thirty times, at least, comparing each repetition with the letter as printed, in order to see whether you have shaped it to a good degree of exactness. Every time you write any letter, give the sound aloud, and also call the name. What is impressed on the eye and ear both, is more likely to be remembered.

When the consonant alphabet is finished, and the forms, and powers, and divisions, of the letters are familiar in some good degree, then go through with the vowel-signs in the same way, taking care, when you write the figures of them, to sound them, to call each by name, and to classify it.

You are now prepared to commence the exercise of reading. Specially concerned with this is $\$ 26$ in the Grammar, which developes all the methods of syllabication. The principles on which every distinct syllable is grounded, and how the indistinct ones are formed, may be found there; and the beginner should join with the exercise of reading, the application of the principles which guide him. In this way, joining this with the careful study of the powers and classifications of the vowels, and specially as connected with the Quiescents, he may come, in a short time, to read with a good degree of facility, provided he constantly practices reading aloud, either alone, or (what is better) in company with another. The hesitating, drawling, blundering manner, in which many (not to say most) students read Hebrew, is an incongruity in a scholar, and never fails to make the impression, that he does not understand what he cannot read with more facility. My advice to every student is, to give no occasion for such an impression, by showing that he does not actually and readily know and distinguish the different letters and vowels. Writing them and reading them aloud, oflen, carefully, added to seeking out all the principles of sound and syllabication in the Grammar, until they become altogether familiar, are the sure and only means of speedily performing, in a ready way, the task of reading Hebrew with facility.

With this reading, after some progress made in it, let the student join the practice of distinguishing every instance of Daghesh lene and forte in the Aspirates, as described in $\$ 21$. A very little time will enable him to
understand and apply the principles there developed; and almost every sentence in Hebrew requires one to understand them.

As a specimen of the manser in which I would have him proceed, in learning to read with facility, I will here subjoin a few verses, with the English representatives of the IIebrew sounds, as exhibited in the second column on the left of the Alphabet, p. 18 of the Grammar.

Be-p. 36. $u$; rê, $23, \uparrow \mathbf{1}$; shîth, $9,4 .-$ bă, $9,1.2$; rà, 23, 1.- ${ }^{e}, \mathbf{1 0}, 2$; lō, 26,$2 ;$ him, 9,4 --eth, 9, 7.-hăsh, 26,5 (as to the short vowel), 20, 1 (as to Dagh. forte); shã, $9,1.2$; ma, comp. $86 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{n} .2$ and 9,2 ; yim, 26, $5 . \mathrm{v}^{\mathrm{v}}$, $102,2 . \alpha$; èth, 9,7 ; hā, 26,3 ; Nֵā, 23,2 ; rĕts, $26,5$.





 b) bethôkh hăm-mã-yĭm vì-hî măbh-dîl bên ma-yìm lâ-mã-yĭm.

This may suffice to guide the beginner, and to introduce him to syllabication. If he learns to distinguish all the different vowels as to sound and quantity, and when to make open syllahles, and when closed ones, (which he will easily do, if he makes himself thoronghly acquainted with § 10 and §26), the difficulties of reading will then be removed, and he will need nothing more than frequent practice, to enable him to read with fluency. The chiddren of Jews usually learn to read Hebrew with ease, even without understanding anything of its meaning.

The next labour is, to make such an acquaintance with Hehrew forms, viz. those of pronouns, verbs, and nouns, as will enable him to begin the work of translating. I mention only these three parts of speech here, hecause the others, having almost no clanges, will give him little or no trouble.

Let him make no attempt, at this stage of study, to master all the exceptions and irregularities that occur, in these parts of speech. It is enough that he so study the essential parts of the Grammar, in respect to them, that

[^119]he may know where to go, to find the solution of any difficulty that may occur. The normal state of the language is what he should first aim at. Irregularities are best learned, as they occur in the course of reading.

In this part of study, the learner will he greatly assisted by exercises on the original pronoms, on the verbs, and on the different classen of nouns. These may be so conducted, liy the aid of a skilful teacher, that when the heginner comes to the realing of the Ileb. Scriptures, the forms that occur will already be familiar to him, and the most he has to do, will be to acquire a knowledge of the meaning of words. Where other difficulties are removed, a rapid advarice may be experted in this. A book of exercises, adapted to give the learner a thorongh knowledge of all the different puncthation of verbs in diflerent tenses, conjugations, and persons; and so of nouns mase. and fem., sing. and plur., in all their declensions, is a desidercttum for the successful study of Hebrew in our country, lighly important and really indispenzable.*

* It gives me great pleasure to state, that Prof. Hackett, of the Newton Theol. Scminary, is about to publish such a book. He has tried the experintent of teaching in this way, viz. by the aid of grammatical exercises, and has come fully, (and, I doubt not, justly) to the conclusion, that, in the same length of time, much greater advance is made in the knowledge of Hebrew, than in the old method of studying. Germany has already some half score of exercise books for the Hebrew. Gesenius sanctioned and commended this method; and one of his pupils, Brickner, has published an excellent book for this purpose. From this, from Maurer's book of the like nature, and from some others, and also from his own experience, Prof. Hackett designs to publish a small rolume, which will aid all the teachers and leamers of Hebrew in our country, in the performance of their task. The plan, faithfully carried through, cannot fail to give an impetus and an advance to Helnew studies, which are greatly needed.

The difference between this method of teaching and learning and the common one, is important. The common one makes the student passive, or, at most, active in mere memoriter efforts - a dull, dry, uninteresting task, and in general very poorly performed. But when the learner is brought to use his pen and his mind, in making out and impressing on his memory all the leading Ilebrew forms of nouns and rerbs, his interest is at once excited in the prosecution of his work. E. g. he is required to
 baradigmal rech. This ohlige him carefully to search out the whole paradigm, and

 noress, the forms singular anrl plumal, comstruet, suftix. ete, are required; and thas all the variations of which they are susceptible, are soron mastered. Of the article, all the different motes of pumetuation are attained and made familiar. by presenting nouns before which they must be employed, and reguiring the learner to supply the article and its rowel hefore all. The suffir-promous may be left to the prosess of reading and be gradualiy attaincel by raking them one by one at a time, and requirine the original and the suffix-forms, atml attaching the latter to some verts no nom. In short, all the principles of forms, fleclensions, ete., may he impreseet on the learner's mind, by making due amangement for him to designate them with his pen. And so

Along with exercises on the verbs, should be joined not only the various species of verbs, such as those in the Paradigms, (which are chosen with a view to their various modes of vocalization, and of treating the consonants which belong to the stems), but also verbs which have, for the first, second, or third letter, an Aspirate; or verbs with the first two and last two letters Aspirates; and also verbs with all three of the stem-letters of this class, like 7 ³. . All that pertains to Dagh. forte and lene, may be shortly learned in this way.

The Accents, as distinguished from the vowels, are easily learned. Sooner or later, the whole train should be made familiar. But the student may set out with merely a particular knowledge of the pause-accents ; see 15. 3. A. 1. $1-3$, and also II. ib. These are not only quite important as marking the $\sigma$ tixou in poetry, but very often they have an effect in changing the vowels connected with them; see § 29. Let not the learner neglect the aid which they will oftell afford him, both as to special forms of words, and as to their connection with, and relation to, other words. Although they are not authoritative, yet they designate the grammatical, and often the exegetical, views of ancient Hebraists, who were highly skilled in a knowledge of the Heb. language.

We will now suppose the learner to have gone through with a competent portion of these preparatory exercises, and to have such an acquaintance with the forms of Heb. words, as prepares him to distinguish the various classes of them from each other, and to ascertain their true relation to each other, and thus make out the order of a sentence. He may now commence the study of the Heb. Scriptures, with the prospect of easy advance. The language itself is much less difficult in its forms, and cases, and modes, and tenses, than either Greek or Latin. The whole language that remains, is embodied in one book; and it would seem, that at least so much might be read for the sake of gaining a knowledge that will be highly profitable.

## § 3.

Notes designed to lead to a complete grammatical analysis.
If the learner pursues the course which I have marked out for him, the need of a prolonged Chrestomathy will not be felt. The design of the following pages is merely to point out the way in which the study of Hebrew should be conducted, if it be intended to answer any valuable critical or phi-

[^120]lological purposes. Whatever pertains to orthography, forms of words, or the relative position of them, i. e. syutax, should be aimed at, from the first outset of study. Nearly all students of the Hebrew come to the acquisition of this language, after they have studied the Latin and Greek languages; and the general priuciples of universal grammar may be regarded as already in their possession. Of course there is no need of dwelling on things common to all languages; at most, no farther than to show the agreement of the Hebrew in respect to these, with other languages that the learner has studied.
On each of these objects of attention, that I have named, I would make some brief remarks, nrorely to satisfy the mind of the learner, that they should be regarded as oljects with which he must make a minute and accurate acquaintance, whatever may be the efforts necessary to accomplish this end.
I. The Orthography. Under this, I include the proper adjustment of all the consonants, vowels, and diacritical signs, such as Daghesh, Mappiq, and the like. In Hebrew there is, in some cases, a great variety in the modes of orthography, specially where the Quiescents are concerned; as the reader may see in $\$ 8,4$ seq., where this is illustrated. Sometimes this becomes a matter of high importance, even in order to settle the question, to what class of words the particular word under consideration belongs. Whenever the sense requires, the absence of a $\mathfrak{4}, \mathfrak{\infty}$, and occasionally even n, may be supposed, and the word regarded as virtually implying them, if the context and the doctrine of Heb. forms make this implication congruous. Then, in regard to the varying punctuation of such particles as 4, コ, コ, 3, (pp. 189. 194), the learner must often hesitate, and even stumble, as to his estimate of the proper nature of the words, unless he is familiar with the appropriate orthography. With regard to Daghesh forte and lene he must surely do this, unless he learns not only to distinguish Dagh. forte as compensative, characteristic, euphonic, and conjunctive, ( $\$ 20$ ), but specially to distinguish Dagh. lene from all others, and to know of course where and when it must be employed, and where it cannot be. True orthography demands alsolutely a knowledge of all this. Whatever then occurs in the text to be read, which is of an orthographic nature, (in the general sense above defined), should be the object of attention in such notes as are designed to guide the learner to a knowledge of elementary matters.
II. Forms embrace all that is called declension in nouns and verhs; and not even a step can be taken, without some knowledge of these. What is normal, I now suppose the student to liave some knowledge of. Alt departures from the common rule, must of course be pointed out and explained. But instead of repeating the explanation at length, in the following notes, and thus virtually writing the Grammar over again, I shall refer the learner to
the place in the Grammar where due explanation is made. It will be far more useful to him, to look this out in the Grammar, and study it there for himself, than it would to have everything explained at length, and all laid before him, and thus have all investigation superseded. The same is true in regard to the treatment of all the other objects, to which the attention of the student is invited.
III. Syntax of course is fundamental in all languages. But there are principles in it common to them all; and it is wholly unnecessary, in a Chrestomatly like the present, to dwell on these common and well known principles. It is enough merely to point out the consentaneous practice of the IIebrews, in the construction of their sentences. What is peculiar to this language; what differs from the general usage of other languages; what would puzzle the student to unravel, in his state of imperfect knowledge ; all this inust be explained by reference to the syntax in the Grammar, where lie will see the subject developed in its proper relations. To repeat in the Notes what is there said, would be more than superfluous.

The student has now before him the three-fold object to be attained, by aid of the Notes which follow. I can only say to him, (which I do say without the least doult or hesitation): Make haste slowly. Every step that you take in uttaining a knowledge of either the orthography, the forms of words, or the syntax, is so much clear gain toward a radical and fundamental knowledge of the Heb. language. Everything which leads you to this, at the outset, is preparing to make you advance rapidly in the sequel. Your whole gain, within a given time, at least if this comprise several months of study, will lie much greater than could be made by the mere study of the meanings of words, in the use of lexicon only.

It is indeed indispensable, of course, that these meanings should lee learned. But the common method of studying languages, i. e. a mere slight and temporary attention to grammar, and after that a constant readiug on, merely to gain a knowledge of the meaning of words from the lexicon, will certainly disappoint the hopes of the student. Any body can learn to translate, where the meaning of the words is plain, and the syntax in requisition is merely what belongs to universal grammar. It is idions, peculiarities, departures from usage elscwhere, or even from what is normal and common in Hebrew, that truly bring the student to the trial. His lcxicon-knowledge fails him here. The very passages where the power of grammatical criticism is needed, and must be applied in order to elicit any tolerable sense, are those very passages in which the mere lexicon-learner will see that he is utterly non-plus'd. In a word, all the proper avails of philology and criticism, in cases of difficulty, will be heyond his power; for as to passages which are so plain that 'he who rumneth may read,' criticism in a higher sense is needless. And when he does need it, then he finds bimself incapable of employing it.

If I know anything of philological study, I know this for certainty, viz. that every learner who calculates on nothing more than to attain to the lexicon-meaning of words, must find himself entirely incapacitated, when a serious difficulty occurs, not only to solve it himself, but even to judge whether others have properly and satisfactorily solved it; for how can he judge of the appositeness of arguments, the value of which he cannot estimate? Fully believing this, I invite his attention to a different method of study, one which shall put it in his power to juilge and decide respecting the orthography, the forms of words, and the syntax, of the Hebrew, as well as in regard to the merming of particular words. Without the first three of these, the latter camot, 'in many cases where the sense of a word is modified by position and syntactical relation, he at all truly attained. Let the student then be patient in the labours requisite to take the proper stand of critical knowledge; and let him not feel, as is too often the case, that he is making but little progress in the knowledge of Helrew, hemase he travels over but comparatively little gromud. A few chapters radically studied will give him more power of progress, than whole books run over with nothing but the lexicon in hand.

With these things premised, in the way of explaining and vindicating the course of the following Notes, I proceed to the work before me.*

## Notes on Gen. I. 1.



* In the editions of my Hebrenv Chrestomathy, printed formerly in a separate volume with the Hebrew text, I inserted several Exercises on the verbs and nouns, which the student was advised to go through. Then followed $\Omega$ series of short sentences, selected here and there from all pants of the Helrew Scriptures. Both of these I now dismiss. inasmuch as the pullication of Prof. Hackett's little linok of Practicel Exercises will superscde them, and be far more thorough and useful to the student.

I have already mentionch, that for Clirestomathic purpores, it matiers not where we go for text. excepting that the more difficult pasenges of prose or of poetry are inapposite to the beginuer. To reat on contimumsing through a comected narration, is incomparably a better way than to read mere apothegmatic sentences, having no connection, and constantly presenting new words. The student is apt to be disheartened by this process, because lee finds so many new words to be difficult to remember, and -eems to get lithe ain from what he has already dome to assist him in what he is doing. The repetition of known words in simple narrations, are little spots of vegetation in the desent which he seems to be traversing. and he is encomaged and excitech to go on by the inturenee of these cheering places upon lris mind. The rqutition of many words also fixes them in his memory. Hence I have selected some of the most simple, and at the same time most perfect, specimens of a pure Hebrew style, from the book of Genesis, as the best adapted for an introduction to the Hebrew.
t The motes first in order pertain to the orthography or vocalization. Daghesh, and the like: then they en on to the firm of the word, and lastly to its grammatieal relations.
might be written without the $\kappa$, and is so written in Deut. 11: 12, comp. $\S 8,4$. -The form is that of a denominative, $85,2.6$, comp. 83,16 , derived from ن์x่.-Office of $\mathfrak{a}, 153,3$. $\alpha$. Position of the whole word, which is used adverbially, 142, 1. d.-(구구* Dagh. lene in 2, 21, 2.-form, 73, 1.position in the sentence, 142, 1. a.-Tense, 124, 1.-(אֵ), א guttural and vocal, 23, 2; composite Sheva under it, 22, 4. n. 2; the Hholem in the plural written defectively, i. e. without the 4 which belongs to the sing. 튼ㅆ, 8, 4. $a$; for Mappiq in $m$ of the sing. form, see 14,1 ; plur. $=$-, 86,1 Plur. noun subject of a verb singular, 143, 2. (אֵ), א vocal, 23, 2.-ת אֵ
 ticle, with Dagh, forte after it, 35, also 137. -For the peculiar form of the plur. (like the dual), see $86 \mathrm{~b}, 1, \mathrm{n} .2$. The now obsolete sing. doubtless
 the sing., which made the present form (penult accent) of the plur. neces-
 Yาֵ, 29, 4. $a$; for the Silluq ( ) , see 15, 3. A. 1. For the Segholate form of the word, see 83, No. 11. Dec. VI.
Note on the accentuation. The panse-accent $(-)$ is here placed on full proof that some other purpose than that of separating clauses and distinguishing the sense, is and may be attached to the aceents; for how would look in English: In the beginning God created; the heavens and the earth? It is the same in Hebrew, if the Athnahh $(-)$ is to be regarded only in the light in which we regard our English punctuation. Beyond all reasonable doubt, the Athnahh is here a sign of cantillation, that is of a pause in it, or a stress of voice laid on the pause-syllable. This seems, moreover, to be the true reason why the pause-accents so often prolong the vowels on which they fall; a circumstance that connects merely and only with the cantillation, for it makes not the slightest change in the meaning of a word, nor even sub)stantially in its relation. The simple truth seems to be, that the cantillation, for the most part, is adapted to the sense, and pauses where that does. But where the verse, like Gen. 1: 1, has no pause as to sense, one is made, as we see, in the cantillation. From all this we draw the important inference, that the accents do not bind us, as to our punctuation; that they are sometimes employed, (I mean the distinctive ones), where we cannot put even a half-comma; and also that, while we may safely follow them in most cases, we are always at liberty to make an English punctuation that is best adapted to the sense.
 larger pause-accent to make $\vee$ into $\underset{\text {. }}{ }$. Nor does it need one; for a peculiar usage here always assigns the form
 verb predicate, 142, 1. Expression of the copula (was), 141, N. B. (n) (n)

[^121]without Daglı, lene becallse it comes between two vowels, 21.*- Form seen under in Lex. ; properly of third class of Segholates, 91, 6.3 $3=$ nin, which goes into the more facile and euphonious hin tü-hù, which is indeclinable. The cases are few in Hebrew, (the suff. pronoun of third pers. mase. excepted), in which Vav is permitted to retain its consonant power at the end of a word. The predicate here (n) as a noun, but in sense an adjective, 141, note. 'This mode of expression in the Hebrew, is
 it is between two vowels, like - above; form, same as above, see $n$ Lex. ; meaning as a predicate, in the like predicament. ( $(\boldsymbol{1}$ 7, Sheva silent written out in final $\bar{T}, 10$, 3. a.-Form, 91, 6. 3. ( 2\#, 151, 3. $b$; omission of the verb was before it, 141. with Dagh.
 Dec. IX. p. 171, see in Lex.). As to the Gen. (ロimn), n, no Dagh. lene,




 Par. $\boldsymbol{E}$.-For the fem. form here (to agree with Thia), see 49, 3, and comp. 92, 2: stands in the place of a verb in the Perf, 1:31, 2. c. (
 For the Silluq (, ), 15, 3, A.
(3)

 and $n .3, e$, of the same. The normal abridged form here, provided with a final helping vowel (note $3, \alpha$, ut supra), would be ? a Yodh with a Seghol hefore it, is an impossible syllable in Hebrew; consequently the regular Segholute form of the verb is exchanged for that form which belongs to derivatives of $\left.{ }^{*}\right\rangle$, comp. in $91,6.6$, and the final syltable thus ending in a quiescent Yodlt, and being long and demanding the accent, the usinal vowel under the praeformative (? or ..) is exeluded, as also the tone upon it, and Sheva takes the place of a proper vowel, because it is essential th the Segholate form in question, comp. 91, 6. 6. As to the $\pi_{-}$at the end of the full form ה"nn, see 7t, 5. As to the nature and design of the apoc. form, see $48,2,4$, and 126,2 . For the regular short Hhirer before a Guttural in the full form, see (i2, Note 5. (7iא), Dec. I. p. 170. If it be not an original root, it comes from the verb mis; see 84. IV. 3. ("היn) same apoe. verb as before, but with Vav consec., 48 b, 2, and 74, n. 3, $e$. As to the Dagh. forte omitted in the ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ), see 20, 3, Rem.

[^122]（4）＇ el is omitted， 74 ，n．3，c．$a$ ；the nude form would normally be $\mathfrak{x n} \mathfrak{n}$ otiant，23，1），but the 7 makes it $7 \boldsymbol{\square}, 22,5 . b$ ．As the $\mathbb{N}$ is not sounded at all，it has no Sheva，see 10，3．b．（אֻ），as above，excepting that Maqqeph follows it，which shortens the vowel（ - ），29， 1 and 27，1．（तָ（Ț），in arti－
 because it is preceded by a vowel，comp．21，2．Here the accent $(-)$ stands rightly as to marking the sense．Verb to be omitted before בi゙コ，141．N．B．

 see under v．2．For the article，35，2．A．$a$ ．
 Synt．as ahove．－（רiאלָ），ל̦ prep．，pointing，100．c．－（ロin），Dec．I．as to the sing．，the plur，is irregular；see on p．182，and also Lex．For nise after
 which is here dropped， 35, n．2．For the $(-)$ of the article，see above，v．4，
 the $\pi_{-}$is an addition，originally marking time when， $88,2 . c$ ；hut gradually incorporated with the word itself，see Lex．；it is toneless，88，2．Rem．；${ }_{\text {？}}$
 83，No．11．－（ คק゙），ב omits Dagh．lene，because it follows a vowel，21， 1 ； Segholate form，91，6．3．－Both times the here is followed by Maq－ qeph， 16,1 ；no accent on either qeph to the noun that follows，and in each case both are read as one word， 16， 1 ；hence the Methegh in both cases（in ， 1 ）stands on the fourth syllable back of the tone（p．45．d），beginning the count with the tone－syllable（the penult）of each noun；comp．also（e）on the same page，where the same principle is exhibited．Possibly the Methegh in may be explained， by saying that it is on the antepenult $(16,2)$ of what would be the tone－syl－ lable，in case the word was accented．But this seems to contradict the theory of Maqqeph，which makes both words into one．Of course the ac－ centuation must conform to this．－（ニin）Acc．of time，116，2．－（Mֵ）instead of under the $\kappa$ ，ib．；this cardinal number，also，is used as an ordinal ardjective， 95， 1.
（6）（6） 굴，83，5；with Pattah furtive，22，2．b；Dec．III，91，3．－（7）
 v． $2, \underset{\text { ，for }}{2} \supseteq$ ，because of the pause－accent $(-\bar{A})$ ．－（ and ！；for the pointing（！）here，see $102,2 . c$ ；for the dropping of the She－ va under the first Yodh in ？？，see 24，1．a．This apoc．form is jussive，48， 4，（comp．in v． 3 above），and not the Imperf．of narration with Vav consec．， which would be

Part．of 3 T⿰丬⿳ perf．jussively employed，131，2．c，comp．48，2，4．－（ $-\mathfrak{\circ}$ 86，1．n．2；old sing．М．－（こ？
 to be merely an abbreviated formula，instead of $\xi^{\square}$
 Ezek．22：26，we have twice，？．．an ；all with the same meaning．The form in Is．52： 2 casts light on that now before us，and shows，that for brevity＇s sake，in the second case，the＂M is not repeated，but merely the ？ employed．\＃\＃propely means interstice，p．193，Examp．；the waters on either side are its boundaries，so that the literal idea seerns to be：The in－ terstice（i．e．the space between）from the waters on the one hand，to the waters on the other；or simply：the between of the waters（limited by wa－ ters）on the one hand，to（ $(\underset{\sim}{ })$ the waters on the other．（So，for substance， Ewald，Heb．Gramm．，p．414．edit．5．Tuch，Comm．in loc．）．Comp．152， 3.
（7） 74，n．3．$d$ ；synt．，126，b－（ $(\boldsymbol{\sim}$

 ${ }_{7}$ has the punctuation of the omitted article $\underset{T}{ }$（see above）， $100,1 . b$ ；we may translate：From the under part of the firmament，or from the lower part to the firmament；for the first， 113,2 ；for the second， 115,1 ；the meaning is the same in both cases．－（ $3 \times 2$ ），compound of and $\mathfrak{\sim}$ forte（as in $n$ n？above）cannot be employed here， 22,1 ，and for the pro－
 a vowel．－means right，just，and as an adverb of condition here，it cor－ responds to our English just so．


（9）We？，Niphal， 3 plur．Imperf．Jussive of


 m－m：－bit－cxcludes Dagh．forte and prolongs the vowel，27，2．$b$ and 22 ， 5．The here stands before a second Jussive form in connection with the
 No．6；used here like the Greek ì $\xi \eta \rho \dot{\alpha}$ ，the dry land，the word earth being omitted in both languages by brachylogy．


 a，p．171，comp．91，8；etymology uncertain．－（×n무），see v． 4.
（11）$\times$ ，
thegh on a penult closed syllable here，p． $45, c .-(\mathfrak{N} \div \div)$ ， $\mathfrak{N}$ here is treated as a consonant，the Segholate being of the regular form；and so elsewhere；
 exactly explanatory apposition，but apposition expanding the idea，and un－ connected by a conjunction．The larger vegetation，producing seed，is meant by the word．Brachylogy omits the appropriate verb，unless we ex－ pand the idea of N゙・为 so as to apply to it．The like applies to $\uparrow$ 登，in the
 timate， 91,6 ，in the remarks on such Gutturals；in connection with the Part．preceding，which is from the same root，135，1．n．1．－（ץ\％），etymology doubtful，Dec．VII．b，p．171，also 91，7．－（－） Dagh．conjunctive，20，2．1；read $=0$－sĕp－pri；lit．tree of fruit $=$ fruit tree，
 which belongs to the preceding letter；the point over the left tooth marks the letter as $\operatorname{Sin}=s, 8,2 . a$ ；Pres．Part．of the verb $\begin{aligned} \text { in } \\ \text { ？}\end{aligned}$ ；with final $\pi-$ ，

 ใ．．．），in which， 121,1 ；it relates to the that precedes．－（1），suff．


 trees upon it，viz．upon its surface．＇－（ $i=-$ as here，the Athnahh stands on the next preceding word．
 $b$ ；verb 唈，first class， 68,1 －（ meaning as before，and without any y conjunction between the particulars， showing that it is the apposition of expansion．－（），as hefore，with Dagh．
 see suff．in Par．A．p．289．Gen．suff．A． 3 pers．；the meaning is the same in both，but the（ $1-$ ）is an abridged form of 1 ．．．－（（Ninin），see v． 4.

 plur．of－ix $\underset{\sim}{2}$ ，masc．Dec．III．This word has plurals both masc．and fem． as to form， 86,4 ；formation of the sing．， 84 ，IV． 14 ，comp． 83 ，No． 14 ；plur． form of noun joined to the preceding verb sing．，144，1．$\alpha$－（ユ゙ロ），const． form of ？？？Dec．III．；the article belongs here，but cannot be employed before a const．noun， 109,1 ；it is expressed before the following word in


 consec．， 48 b，3，and used here as a Jussive，comp．124，6．a．－－รis？，Vav omitted（as above），after $\mathfrak{N}$ and the first $\curvearrowleft, 8,4$ ；plur．of nix $=5$ n，which

$b$ ；prep．？，100， 1 ；the noun is the plur．of דジi々，Dec．VII， 91,7 ；stem

 masc．form， 86,4 ．The $ל$ ל is omitted before $\begin{gathered}\text { in } \\ \text { in } \\ \text { in order to connect this }\end{gathered}$ word more closely with the preceding one．Translate：＇For appointed seasons，both for days and years；this last clause is added so as more spe－ cifically to limit the preceding noun－seasons．
（15）ה！ with two；pointing of the prep．？，100．Punct．$\alpha$ ．－（ב），pointing of $¥$ ，
 Inf．， 46,3 ；verb）${ }^{2}$ ；for pracformative and its vowel，$\underset{\sim}{2}$ ，see 71， 3 ；stem is mis verb middle $0,71,2$ ；see in Par．$M$ ．
（16） see same orthography in v .14 ；here the art．precedes；for syntax， 118, i．$\alpha$ ．
 article before the adjective，109， $\mathfrak{2}$ ．－（ -5 ），the great one，i．e．the larger or
 93,1 ，in the second e．g．；an luf．form with an active or gerundial sense．－

 form；Acc．after

 101，n．1．The arrangement slould be noticed here；which is verb，object， subject ；the reason of which seems to be that $\operatorname{mex}_{\mathrm{K}}$ expresses what $\mathrm{E}_{-}$（ the verbal suffix）would do in Erane，and on this account is brought into prox－ imity with the verb．The placing of the pronoun in a separate way，makes it more noticeable．As to the rest of the verse，see above．


 as hefore．The use of the article in these cases，is like the same in our English idiom；for we say：To rule over the day and over the night，as con－ tradistugnished from each other；and this is made more expressive by the article．That $=$ has the sense of over，in connection with been is plain；


（20）－Kal，Imperf．Jussive， 48,4 ，seeond paragraph；translate： Let the waters swarm with reptiles；for $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text { in } \\ & \text { in } \text { connection with a verb from }\end{aligned}$ the same root，see 13．5，1，1．1．－（：$=:$ ），lit．breath；with - ne it means pro－ perly living breath；in apposition with rag，111，qualifying it by showing that it comprises living and breathing animals，in distinction from vegetable

when the adjective receives an accession，comp．66，3．－（7iצn），for form， see 84，IV．11；of Dec．I．；prop．wing＝winged bird．－（прй），stem 5月y； Imperf．Pilel，71，7，Par．M．p．304，comp．54，2．－（13 ），in front of，or before the face of，see Ges．Lex．שָּנֶה，G；const．form before צ゙pl？，which again is itself of the const．form hefore is somewhat obscure；but the meaning seems to be：＇Let the wiliged bird fly near the firmament，i．e．mount high aloft．＇
 meaning huge，from ${ }^{2}$ ．${ }^{T}$ to extend；form，83，7；plur．with article ；the arl－

 vowel shortened by Maqqeph，27，1，comp．16，1．This word is not em－ ployed as an adjective in the Hebrew，but always as a noun $=$ universitas， totum．Of course the noun following it is in the Gen．－（どפy），here breath $=$ breathing creature，abstract for concrete，104，2，second Par．under e．g．－
 will not admit it，22，1．If the article makes a difficulty on the ground of general principle；see $100,2$. But still，the Heb．not unfrequently superadds the article to the adjective， when the noun is destitute of it， $109,2 . \alpha$ ．I deem the true construction， in all such cases，to he the same as when the article is employed before a participle，i．e．it is then a relative－demonstrative pronoun（107），making a clause by itself；e．g．in the present case，הַחהּהּ，which［is］living．And this is confirmed by the very next word－（ for the $(\tau)$ see 35,1 ，and 22,5 ；Part．from $\mathfrak{\sim}$ －רem． $49,3.92,2.93,3$ ；translate creeping，or（more literally）which
 suff． $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{n}}$－，see 89,2 ，n． 1 ，which shows that a Yodh is omitted here after the I in the word，which would be an index pluralitatis；see suff．in Par．A．p．

 the final syllable instead of $(-)$ ，because the tone is drawn back to the pe－ nult，29，3．$\alpha$ ，comp．27，1．－（ $\underset{\sim}{\sin })$ ，see v． 17 ；the order here is predicate，
 with the Inf．；the pointing ？（in the fall form），p．190，$a$ ；see also 23，2．$a$ ， which shows that $\kappa$ in the contracted form is quiescent．The 3 is used here in a peculiar way；for the meaning is not properly an Inf．，viz．to say，hut gerundial $=$ dicendo．The ？sometimes denotes by，in the sense of desig－ nating instrumentality or cuusation，Ges．Lex．3，4．c．Similar to this it seems to be in（lex－mör），which may be translated by saying．Our idiom more naturally omits the by．－（1），Kal，Imper．of



3 prep．with the pointing of the article elided， $100, b$ ；for the noun plur．，see
 Imperf．Jussive，${ }^{7} 74$, n． 3 ，and 74,5 ．－（

 const．- ת，from The suffix paragngic（i）seems to dispense with the article after it，（as in this case in respect to $\begin{array}{r}\text { pex ；；and so in all cases，e．g．Ps．50，10．79：2．104：11，}\end{array}$ 20．Zeph．2：14．Is．56：9．In this last case，by changing the mode of ex－ pression，we have ，i．e．we have the article（in $\cong$ ）before the se－ cond noun；but the same expression，without the preposition，omits the ar－ ticle in Ps．104：20；and v． 25 here supplies it，when the i－is omitted．－

（25） $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$－n mer ，whe article is supplied，although omitted in the preceding verse after
 for the last vowel， 74,1 ．e．g．；hortative，125，3．$b$ ；as the plural here，it is probably of the same nature as that in $106,2 . b$ ．－（ $\left.=\underset{T}{T} \times{ }_{T}\right)$ ，seems to be a participial of＝Tָ｜rubuit， 83,1 ，indicating the colour of an Asiatic．If the rules of formation would permit，the context would agree better with a de－ rivation from $n=\frac{T}{T}$ to be like，but they do not；the noun is of Dec．IV，and is
 p．289，under A．－（3），as，according to；for the vowel，p．150，$\alpha$ ； form of the noun， 84, V． 13 ；immutable；，4－as before．－（（inn），Kal Im－

 phe because it follows a vowel；：Raphe because derived from חiָ̦ ，21，2． $\alpha$ ；const．of Dec．II．fem．The $=$ is connected with，and reynired by，the preceding verb，137，$b$ ，and must be translated over－－（ $-\underset{\sim}{-1})$ ，see in v．21； ${ }^{7}$ which，the which，107，first Remarks（2）．
 Dec．IV．masc．；Dec．II．fem．；4，102，2．b．In the Acc．in apposition with $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{x}$ ，and exegetical of it，111．Put first，so as to he prominent， 142,1 ．c．－ （

 and $(-)$ written instead of it， $9,9 . b ; \underset{T}{ }$－verbal suff，pron．，Par． $\mathcal{A} . \mathrm{p} .288$. A col．
（29）ה－T，103，2，comp．98，5．－（
 （＊ジ・ジi），see in v．12，where，however，the Part．is in Hiph．，but here in
 for foord；in English we omit the for ；see Lex．חָדָ with ？following，$b$ ．

 —（1）， 96.

## Chap．II．

（1），Penh，Pual，third plur．，Imperf，with Vav consec．，of
 289 ，A．Properly host applies only to the heavens，which are plur．，and means the stars．
（2）Зシัּ，－Piel Imperf．of $20,3 . a$ ；apoc．form， 74, n． 9 ；sing．verb and plur．subject， 106,2 ．b．－
 lar form（from the stem is occasionally imitated by the Hebrew），where $\mathbb{x}$ bas a long vowel and is preceded by a Sheva，that vowel falls back into the place of the Sheva，and the $\kappa$ hecomes quiescent．This being adopted in the present case，gives us
 ken from it，which was necessary to make the closed syllable $\mathfrak{\sim} \equiv$ ．Under this new form，the $(-)$ remains what it was in the normal form，i．e．muta－ ble ；hence in suff．and const．state， cally otiant．The $\boldsymbol{i}-$ is suff．，p．289，A．－（ here，viz．＂God rested from all his work on the seventh day，＂makes it clear that the bごィ，at the beginning of the verse，means made an end of，ceased to continue．The change of seventh，in the first clanse，to sixth，which is adopt－ ed by the Samaritan，the Sept．，and the Syriac version，is unnecessaly，and merely shows an attempt to remove a seeming contradiction．
（3）
 essentially the meaning of the last clause in the verse；but lit．nitu inny be translated faciendo，by making，or for making，or to be made；see 129， 3. n．1．The writer seems to express the original bringing into being，by and the subsequent formations and arrangements by ${ }_{n}$ words are sometimes used interchangeably．
 word；pl．noun，stem ${ }^{2}$ ； history simply；it may naturally mean genealogy；but here the meaning is genetic history ；plural，hecause it comprises narrations of a variety of things；
 created， 129,2 ；treated here as a nomen verbale，with prefix prep．，and suf－


 after it，129，2；order of words in the clause，142，1．$a$.



 the vowel of the article implied， 100,6 ，and 35,1 ．－（ - － expressive of past time by $=-$ as above；Qamets under $々$ instead of（ $(-)$ ， because of the pause－arcent，29，4．$a$－－（x），position，in relation to the



（G）（א），origin somenhat uncertain；the Chald．has which shows that the word may be derived from a root $\because$ or $\because$ ；comp．－in 84, IV． 2. －（ $-\underset{\square}{-\infty}$ ），Kal Imperf．，showing the real nature of this tense，viz．as desig－ nating imperfect or unfinished action，and so of continned and repeated ac－

 in respect to meaning，by the Vav prefixed，124，6．d．－（ nep ；we say face，the Hebrew says faces，106，2．$\alpha$ ．
（7）노는，Imperf．with Vav consec．；writteu plene，p．127，bottom；the accent（little Telisha．p．42，No．28），being post－positive，marks not the tone， 15 ，Rem．2；the tone syllable is the penult bere， $29,3 . a$ ，and $48 \mathrm{~b}, 2 . b$ ．－
 in some other portions of Genesis，has given rise to a great varicty of criti－ cal and gramnatical conjectures and speculations；see in Rosenm．，or Tuch， Comm．on Genesis．I regard them as in apposition，an apposition that unites the special and the general name of the Godhead－somewhat like God，the Omnipotent．－（－EتָTT），Dec．IV．here a second Acc．of material，136，
 fiual syllable， $64,1,2$（4n see Lex．The Dagh．forte in $\operatorname{yy}$ comes from the assimilation of 2 in 5 ， nostril，which is the real ground－form，19，2．b．n．1；suff．＂－-1 ．289，col．
 m，Dec．VIII．；plural in accordance with 106, 2．$a$ ．Here the order of the clanse is，sulject（implied in the verh，he），predicate，circumstance of manner，
 seq．？$b$ ．
（8）ニ゙ローム，Kal Imperf．of $\because$ ；form of the same，65，2；for final Pattah， 64，1．2．－（ ${ }^{2}$ ），formod from pleasure－place，or pleasant－place；form 2 of Dec．VI．－（ニアッ \％），eashacard，lit． away from before；which of course means castuard，because the Hebrews reckon position or direction，from the place of sum－rising，or from the as－ sumed fact，that the face is turned to the rising sum．Eastward from the place of the writer，is here doubtless meant．－（Exp），apoc．Hiph．Imperf．
of atis，a verb 4 ；accent thrown on the penult，29，3．$a$ ，and so the normal
 with pause－accent（Silluq），so written instead of the usual the sense of Pluperf．，124， 2.
（9）Mビsinl apoc．Hiph．Imperf．；final Pattah，64，I．c．in third par．；cau－ sative meaning，52，2，mude to grow or shoot up．－（פחּדֶ），Niph．Part．，with $(-)$ under the praeformative 2，p．118，near the top；translate：to be desired $=$ desirable，lovely．－（ר）


 article，from ָּ Pattah，29，4．a．



 perf．，it was divided；used to express past time，125，4．－（？לַ心），fem． form with masc．noun， 95,1 ；the numerals $3-10$ ，although plural，do not

 The full form would be of Dec．VI．；the contracted one is Dec．I．
 Gen．1：5，at the end．－（\％），prop，name，but probably formed from ©
 is it，119，2．－（בַּ 109，2．$a$ ；Part．used for a verb，131，2．$a .-\left(\begin{array}{l}\text { ．nan }\end{array}\right)$ ，prop．name with the art．before it，contrary to more common usage， 108,1 ，and indicating that
 Dec．IV，with the article，contrary to our English idiom；see p．206，$b$ ．
（12），4，const．form ；（－）under i instead of $(-), 10$ ，

 article again before the generic name of a substance，p．206，$b$ ．The same in n 上
（13）תַּ
 along．－（ラッセ）const．fem．form，Dec．I．of the fem．；the Acc．after the preceding Part．（ $135,3 . d$ ）presents essentially such a construction；or it may be classified with the adverbs in 147，1．－（הָהָהר הָרְבִיצִי），both with the article，109， 2 ；Nom．absolute，which we must translate ：as to the fourth
 meaning：sweet river；as to form，comp．83，No． 13.
(15) Mp:4, see 65, n. 2, and comp. 19, 2. a. b.-(3n:M), Hipb. Imperf. with Vav consec., from חִּ $\boldsymbol{H}$, writien defectivè, the Yodh after a being omitted; of the Chaldaic form, 71, n. $9 ; 7$-., suff., p. 288, A. With such a Vav, we should of course expect the form would have a short vowel, like mish, ( $48 \mathrm{~b}, 2 . \mathrm{b}$ ) ; but when the suffix is added here, the ( - ) long remains un-
 suff. $m_{-}$, p. $288, \Lambda$; for Inf. form in this case, see 60,1 , also in Par., p. 293.

## -Same in respect to the next word.

(16) ${ }^{(1)}$ 20, 3. c.-Dagh. forte omitted in the final Vav, 20, 3. a.-(-i2x’), see in 1:


 forte in the $=(19,2 . \alpha)$, if it could receive it ; bit as it cannot $(20,3 . c)$, so the vowel is lengthened as a compensation, 20, 3. $a$. Dec. VII.-( หน) , see v. 9 above-( with final Tsere), because its jussive nature shortens the form, 126, 2.-


 2 sing. Imperf., 71,3 , for the vowel of the praeformative; render: thou shalt surely die.
(18) ) being of the man by himself [is] not good; $\underset{T}{ }$ art., because the noun here designates an individual ; ? 크 from 7 ㅍㅡㅜ , 84, II. No. 1, which accounts for the Dagh. forte in the 7 above, Dec. VIII. ; i- suff., p. 289, A.-The predicate, בוּ
 in $\underset{3}{2}, 20,2.1$; lmperf. of 1; ; 7 , suff. form of 7 ; we shonld naturally expect hol under the first radical in the suff. form, is an exception to the usual vocalization, as it belongs to Gutturals in such cases. For the peculiar meaning here, see in Lex.
 perf. Hiph. of $x^{2}=$, see Par. p. 310,48 b, 2. $b$; in the Hiph. sense, caused to come $=$ brought.- $(-\mathfrak{N}-\boldsymbol{3})$, Inf. with ?, p. 138, near the top; also 45, 3.-
 1. $a$; repeated Maqqeph, 16, 1; xpp?? followed by ? = to name, 137; ;suff., p. 289, A.-( The prep. need not be repeated; this principle is virtually exhibited in
 Dec. VII.
(20) And Adam called the names, $3=$ ? of every, etc.; the ? here, and in
two following cases，is a circumscription of the Genitive，113，2－（ロTM？（ $)$ ， §，and yet，but still，152，I．B． 6 ；for Adam $\mathfrak{\aleph y}$ there was not found．－（כְּמֶּד），as in v． 18 ad fin．
（21）ל ed form，see $48 \mathrm{~b}, 2 . b$ ；caused to fall， 52,2 －（ 83，IV．27．－（ of the ultimate is lengthened．－（（y），see in v．15．－（
 101，2；the noun is from ジּ
 verbal suffix，101，n．3，p．289，B．of the verbal suffix．
 woman，so as to denote the object for which the rib was appropriated；we
 the $\mathcal{N u n}$ of the masc．assimilated，19，2．$\alpha$－（（ Vav；Dagh．forte omitted in（－），20，3．c．Rem．；rotains the prolonged form （although－is written defectivè），because of the suff．；see ou 4 in v． 15； $\boldsymbol{r}_{-}$－suff．，p．288，A．
 form of Dagh．forte $=\mathfrak{F}$ ；the noun is const．form of Dec．IV．p．170．－（ account of this；see Lex．－（יָּ），Imperf．of Niph．，it shall be called，or rather，there shall be called 3 fem．for $\begin{aligned} & \text { ？} \\ & \pi\end{aligned}$ ；the Dagh．forte being omitted，the composite Sheva is taken in its stead， 10 ，2．2．$b$ ；for Methegh after ？，see $16,2 .(\Omega \mathfrak{R})=$ avivi ；with Dagh．conj．，20，2． 1.
 ened into Qamets Hhatuph by the Maqqeph，29， 1 and 33．－（（אָּיָ），his father；


 tense as hefore；this verb followed liy ？means to become， 137 ；see in Lex．
（25），Imperf．of with Vav，p．238，second par．from the iop．—
 Eig；form， 83 ，No．21，Dec．VIII．；the Dagh．forte in m appears contrary to 26,5 ，but as $(-)$ often stands for Shureq（ 9$), 9,9.1 . b$ ，so the latter is now and then used as if it were the short vowel（ - ），i．e．in a closed syl－ lable unaccented．The Shureq is often short in the Chaldee．The Maso－ rites have marked this anomaly．A star over the word remits the reader to the margin；where a Hebrew note informs him，（as something unusual），
 from שi゙ヨ，in Hithpalel，54，2；comp．71，7；Imperf．，p． 133 at the top； for $ن$ because of the panse－accent， $29,4 . b$ ；properly of a reflexive meaning：
did not shame themselves．The $\mathfrak{k}$（not）qualifies the verb and must stand next to it，p．268，second par．；consequently the Vav consec．（that would he attached to the verb if it had no negative before it），is remitted to a place before the $\mathfrak{K}$ ，and has，in such a case，the same effect in making the verb significant of past time，as if joined to the verb， $126 \mathrm{~b}, 1$.

## Chap．III．

（1）שinsit，see 152，1．for 4，which here marks continuation of narration， even where there is a transition to a new suhject；like $\delta \varepsilon$ in Greek．It covers the ground of both $\delta_{\dot{\varepsilon}}$ and rai，in its reneral usage；스 article be－ canse a distinction front other creatures is designed．－As to serpent，in what light the N．Test．writers viewed the meaning，is evident from Rev．12：$\Omega$. 20：2．Rom．16：20．Luke 10：18，19．John 8：44．－（

 davit ；and from this comes the participial in 2： 25 above；it also means， （2）Calldus fuit；and from this is the present word．The two different derivates are distinguished by their vowels；as was very natural．—（こごう）， i．e．$i==$ rather then，more than，117，1．－（אֵ），in a question：is it verity

（2） 7 ，although specific and filling the place of a Gen，after met y itself before another Gen．，and therefore cannot have the article，108，2．－ （לมַּנ），Imperf． 1 plur．，potential mode，125，3．d．
 －（iz），the $\beth$ belongs to the verb， 137 ，comp．151，2．－（is），p．269，second
 ly retained where the verb is emphatic，47，3．n． 4 ；accent on the ultimate， （as here Silluq）；which is usual in all such cases，ib．，e．g．Joel 2：4，7，9． Of course，the tone being thrown forward by the pause－accent（ 71,6 gives the normal place of tone here），the Qamets under $\underset{\sim}{\text { Tp }}$ praeformative is drop）－ ped，27，3．（4）תits，128， 3.
 lhem），Inf，as a nom，129， 1 ；as to the form，（i0，1．n．2．－（nemen），Perf．
 2 phr．；without＂the form would have a composite Sheva（ - ）under the $\pi$ ， which，however，in this form becomes Sheva simple，and so Vav takes
 of $(-)$ into（ - ），occuring in $72 \times 2$ ，Gen．1：22，and often elsewhere．The comp．Sheva，in this case，is treated as a simple Sheva（at the end of a sylla－ ble and under the letter $\$$ ）would be treated， 23,1 ；but see in particular， $23,2 . a$ ，showing that comp．Shevas may go to form contracted vowels．－

 29, 4. $a$.
(6) ארִּ, apoc. Imperf. Kal of formative $m, 74$, n. $3, b$; for Seghol under $\ddagger$, see $i b$. n. $\alpha$; synt., 126 b, 1.-
 object of desire; abstract for concrete = desirable, optabilis.一 (חוֹ) was it,
 randum, 131, 1.-(
 M




(7) (7
 the latter is the dual const. form of 68, 1. $\alpha$ and n. 3.-(y), Yodh of the plur. ending omitted; a diverse
 in 2: 25 above, while here the penult has the proper short Qibbuts $(-)$.-
 (


 ( nomes indicative of season or time; see Lex. 3. B. 2.-( (یnnan ), Hithp. reflexive, hid himself; verb sing., agreeing with the nearest subject, viz.

(10) 7h?, object placed first, 142, 1. c.-( Vav conser., which before $\mathbb{x}$ is pointed $\underset{\uparrow}{4}, 22,1$; form of the verb, $68,1 . b$.
 next letter excludes the Dagh. forte which would be inserted here in a letter not Guttural ; ఫ, 22, 1.

 Piel from צָּרֶ, with suff-( Hholem of the Inf. shortened by the Maqqeph's throwing off' the accent.-


 sociate--(ח) , she, 32, n. 6 ; before the verb, in order to give emphasis,
 sing．with Vav；$\approx$ of the root omitted in the first pers．，67， 2.
 Hiph．Perf．of א్ָֹּ


 form of יָּים；Acc．of time，116， 2.
（15） Imperf．first pers．，from 5 ？
 cause the accent is thrown upon the suff．$\overline{\gamma_{1}-, ~ 29,2} 2$ and 27,3 －（ Acc．，116，3．－（5nem），second pers．with suff．having 2 demonst．，p．289， B．on the left．—（ニロッ゙），Acc．，116， 3.
 No． 15 ；7－．，fem．suff．，p．289，A ；noun in the suff．form，Dec．III，91，3．－
 assigned to Dec．I．；formation like to 83 ，No．15．－（～ㄴ．．n）， 2 fem．Imperf．

 （ A．The prep．$Z$ is comected with and modifies the preceding vert， $1: 37$.
 word may he regarded as a compound preposition with a suff．， 151,$2 ; 7$

 10,2 1．$b$ ．
（18）Tr＂ex ，Iliph．Imperf． 3 fem．；objects before the verb，142，1．c．－ （ $\%$ ），in pause，for Fout of pause，101，2；Dativus incommodi．
（19）「ご，const．state of which is of Dec．I．fem．，the Tsere being impure and immutable because it is derived from from $-\mathbb{N}$ ，which last is for F－w，and the suppressed $y$ appears in the dual
 with prep．before，and suff．after，129， 1 ；translate：until thy return，or until thou relurnest，129，2－（\％），p．192，sing．third pers．－（


 viz．rational beings；$\pi_{\pi}$ in pause， $\boldsymbol{4}$ ，out of it．
 －－ el $\left(\div=\square\right.$ ）retaned because of the suff．；see the like in $2: 15 ; \mathrm{E}_{-}$，suff．， p．288，A．
(22) in, 103, 2-(







(24) ) insertion of Dagh. forte in the middle letter, and prolongs the vowel under $\searrow, 22,5$; the $(-)$ of the ultimate is shortened, because the accent is on the

 113,2 . The circumstance of place immediately after the verb, and before
 107. See in Tuch's Comm, all manner of conceits respecting this word; also Rosenm. Comm., and Ges. Lex. Comp. Ps. 18: 11. 80: 2. Ezek. 1: 10.
 n. 1, b. Our idiom, in the second translation above, rejects the article.-


[My advice to the learner now is, that he would recommence with Gen. 1:1, and carefully review every part of what he has lieen over, looking again in the Grammar for all the solutions of difficulties which he does not recollect. This will tend to fix all the principles of analysis and syntax more firmly in his mind, than if he goes immediately on to the investigation of new ground. If he does this fuithfully and thorough'y, he will be enabled to dispense with copious. Notes in the sequel; for these three chapters exhibit a great portion of the phenomena in the langliage, which have respect either to the orthography, the forms, or the syntax of it. It will be well, moreover, after the familiarity which he may now be supposed to have acquired with the Grammar, to leave him, more than heretofore, to his own resources. I shall therefore limit myself, in the sequel, mostly to those things which seem to present any difficulty, or which serve in a special manner to illustrate principles either of form or of syntax.]

## Chap. IV.

 final Seghol for Tsere, 68, n. 3.-(-N.) with, p. 191, n. 1; like the Greek, av่ข $\vartheta \varepsilon \oplus ̃$, by divine aid.
 translate the two words: she again bore, 139, 2.-(wָּ (wָּ), p. 181.—

(3)

 see p. 190, 4. Note.

 n, p. 166, n. 1 ; abstract for concrete, and so we may translate: fatlings of

 the subject of the anger; lit. it was hot to Cain, i. e. matter of anger; see




 viz. of the face, which had just been described as fallen.-( $\boldsymbol{\text { mangen }}$ ), ל with the vowel of the article; translate: at the door $\sin$ [is] a lier-in-wait; for is a participial predicate $=$ a noun, $144, \mathrm{n} .2$, and therefore need not conform in gender to men. This last word is a contract form for nwount

(8) it is frequently omitted after this verb; told $i t$, so as to simulate friendly

 3, for vowels; 5-- suff., p. 288, A.


 instead of לヶ.-(אלֵ), like the plur. with suff. ヶ, p. 193, Examp.
(11) probably, it is a constructio pregnans, 138 , where the verb of departure is implied, e. g. 7 .
 29, 4. $b$.

 preceding verb together to be rendered: shall no more yield, $139,1$.
 than, 117, 1 ; ximp Inf. const. ; render : endurance, $129,1$.
(14) mixne Piel, 9 excludes Dagh. forte, and lengthens the preceding


 perf. of $\mathrm{FF}_{\vec{T}}, 65,2$; as to the ( - ), see 52, n. 9 ; he shall be avenged, i. e. Cain, see v. 23; or if the verb is applied to the slayer, then render: he shall suffer vengeance-(-ivi), Hiph. Imperf, with Vav, tone retracted, and $(-)$ of the


 and he built, 131, 2. c.-(כְּ), from with suff.
 ingly Nom. to the verb before it; but see 140, 1. a. (19) (19) , const. dual


 herd, generic, and this is used as concrete; or if this be not allowed, then translate : of herd-keeping.
(21) 4 "
 n. 3.-(הֵNT) Hiph. Imper, hortative, 48, 3; the 2 of the root is contained in the Dagh. forte inserted in z ; the with prep. and suff., from for with Hhireq, instead of the normal
 ground form ; formation, 83, IV. 27. For the numbers at the close of the verse, see pp. 183, 185; seventy and seven; the reverse, as to the order of the composite numbers, is general in the older Hebrew, p. 185, second par. Here the later order is observed. [Is it pottic license? for the passage is poetry]. A great disagreement of opinion has existed, in respect to the meaning. I would translate thus: Although [ ${ }^{n}$, Lex. 6, e.) I have slain a man to my wounding, and a youth to my harm (lit. stripes); yet truly ( - , Lex. 6, c.) Cain shall be avenged seven-fold ; Lamech, then, (7.h., p. 278, d.) seventy times seven. That is: 'Although I have exposed myself to wounds by the slaughter of a young man, yet if any one kills me for this, I shall be entitled to much greater vengeance than was promised to Cain, in case he should be slain.' In this way all is plain and applicable. In other words, he intimates that his guilt in killing is far less than that of Cain; but he does not tell us why.
(25) צnuy Imperf. Kal with 9 ; which shows that this mode of narration may be employed at the beginning of a new transition or paragraph. The connection ( $126 \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{1}$ ), in such cases, is of events, and of the general purpose of the narration ; see p. 238, second par-(9), because, implies the verb
 with Dagh. implicitum, which is excluded by the $\pi, 22,1$. e. g.-( - ), here
 suff. of הרחר, and then rendered whom; the verb is in the suff. form; see in Par. p. 292, 3 masc. sing.-(7) ${ }^{(1)}$ ), in pause.
(26) אn w , to him likewise, was born, etc., 119, 3. It specializes the nar-
 134, 2.
[The following chapter it will require but a slight effort to read. Its value to the student, viewed simply in the light of grammatical study, consists mainly in leading him to a knowledge of Hebrew idiom with regard to numbers. The repetition of numbers is so frequent, and the whole lies within so small a compass, that the learner will do well to become familiar with the words of this nature and their peculiarities, by a faithful study of the whole.]

## Chap. V.

(1) minhin, genetic histories or genealogies.-(x) (x), Inf. in the Gen., 129, 1. $b$; $\begin{aligned} \text { ans } \\ \text { s. the subject of } \mathrm{it}, 130,2 ; ~ l i t . ~ i n ~ t h e ~ d a y ~ o f ~ G o d ' s ~ c r e a t i n g ~ m a n . ~\end{aligned}$
 in suff. form.-(ธאาרำ.), Niph. Inf. with suff.; lit. of the being created of them, i. e. of their being created, 129, 1. b.
(3) fin. This word is treated like the units $2-10$, see 118,1 seq. ; and so
 with 9 , and ultimate vowel shortened by a removal of the tone.
(4) הTM, Hiph. Inf, with prep. and suff., 129, 1, from begetting, but to be expressed by after he begat, 129, 2.-Eight hundreds as to year, 8 takes the plur. $\overline{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{K}: 118,2$; as to $\begin{gathered}\text {, } \\ \text {, virtually the rule is in } 118 \text {, }\end{gathered}$ 3.
(5) Mn, Perf. of
 (9) (9), 90 as to year, 118, 2.
(22) , Hithp. Imperf. with 9; walk with God, means to follow him as the leader, to have familiar intercourse with him ; comp. 1 Sam. 25: 15. Ps. 35: 14.
(24) , بאירֶּ, and he was not, i. e. was no more extant among the living; see ${ }^{\top} \times \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{p} .268$. The suffix constitutes the subject of the verb.
(29) ( IX, with suff. ${ }^{4}-$ - which causes the final letter with its preceding vowel to fall away; see in Par. C.-(
 $\uparrow, 22,5$; (-) under the $7,10,2$ note, 1. $\alpha$; see also 59, n. 4.
 designating age.

## Chap. VI.

 one paragraph or subject to another.- (nח ), Hiph. Perf, of 3 ל

 Dat. commodi.-( $\urcorner า \underset{\pi}{7})$, in pause. See, in the Conmentaries, the great diversity of opinion respecting the meaning of the sons of God; who are re-
presented (1) As angels; the wbole book of Enoch is built on this supposition, which shows that the opinion is very old. (2) The descendants of
 28. Ps. 82: 6. As the sons of Israel means Isruelites, so the sons of Elohim, may mean princes, magistrates, in the same way. The passage, in its connection, seems to my mind like a description of the mingling of the chiefs or heroes with the Cainitae, i. e. the progeny of Cain. Where, in all the $\mathbf{O}$. Test., is there a hint of such an absurd thing, as the mingling of the an-
 controverted word; the passage probably means: My Spirit shall not always be humiliated, or vilely treated, by man, etc.; where spirit appears to mean the breath of life given by Jehovah, see 2: 7. Job 33: 4. 27: 3. 34: 14. In

 シِ่ Inf. of course nccasions, in order to pronounce it, the Dagh. forte in the $\ddagger$; translate: In their erring or wandering.-(חוּא רָּ inclined; as $\sigma \alpha \alpha_{\xi} \xi$ in the N. Test.-( 1 ), and yet, or but yet, p. 278, b; sentiment: 'God, being merciful, will give him ample space for repentance and reformation.'
 fallers on = praedatores, raptatores, غ́лилілтоутєя, seems most consonant with the text; and falls in well with etymology, if we make the stem, and take the meaning 2. $d$. in Lex.-()הTהָה) , synt. of the art. in 109, 2. The sequel runs thus: and also, after it was so that the sons of God went in, etc., or afterwards when the sons, etc.; for will bear either rendering; see Lex. B. 1, or B. 5.-(ה) (ה) above.-(בیֹ $)$, of name, i. e. of renown; for the art., p. 206, c.

 see $=$ in Lex.-Only evil all the day, i. e. evil constantly, or at all times.
 vah repented, that, etc., 50, 2. a. In the same way: He grieved himself at his heart, Hithp. of the verb being reflexive. (7) (7) , first pers. sing. Imperf. of taken inclusively.-(y) different sense. The y radical is dropped here, 65, 2.
(9)
 poraries, a secondary but frequent sense of דוֹר .-For the rest of the verse, see in 5: 24.
 Niph. Perf. 3 fem. in pause. (13)
 Part．with suff．；synt．131，1．－（ゥ），with，p．191，at the top．
（14）$)$ ，const．pl．of $\mathfrak{Y}$ ；；pl．because of the quantity required， $106,2 .-$ Enp，Acc．pl．of TR ；lit．nests＝cells，small separate lodging－places；the dou－

 After wַּ ，（Acc．of measure，116，3），lit． 300 as to cubit，the verb shall be is
 p．289，A．
（16）צמתחr ，light，or as a collective here，lights；which were to be only one cubit high，as the sequel shows．－（ ח－
 all three composed of adjectives in the plural，$=$ lower apartments，seconds， thirds，i．e．of three stories，or a three－decker．
（17），דִ，behold $I$ ，is designed to give intensity and solemnity to the de－ claration that follows．－（ペッロ），Hiph．Part．of אュ．—（ and in its formation，the（ ${ }^{7}$ ）appears to assimilate，and is expressed in the y with Dagh．forte，so that it may be classed virtually with forms in 83，
 lar consonant，and in pause．
 in panse；for forms，p．191，top．（19）
 in this verse）；to keep or save alive．
 obedience．

## Chap．VII．

（1）Fix，thee，object placed first，to make it emphatic．－（仿클），among this generation，$\underset{1}{ }$ like $\dot{\varepsilon} \nu$ in Greek．（2） 2 ）distributively，106，4，


 with Dagh．forte omitted，20，3．b；ETP？from an is an unique form．（5）物获，Piel of
（6）המַּ2n，usually joined with the following as though the latter were Gen．and the former in the const．state．But the article before the former disproves this， 109,1 ，as also the position of $\mathrm{a}:$ after the verb； consequeutly，to render the passage literally，we must say：And the flood was，waters over the earth，the latter clause being in apposition with the first， and explicative of its extent．
（7） $\mathfrak{\Sigma}=\mathbf{2}$ ，sing．number，while several subjects follow，144， 1 ；more briefly， the verb agrees with its nearest subject ；an occurrence not unusual in Latin
 121, 1 ; the ${ }^{-}$- was not. (9) (9)
(10) ?

 4.-(?), lit. in respect to the life of Noah, etc.; or it may be rendered as


 racts.-(יִפְּחוּ), in panse ; Niph. ; were opened, let loose.
(12) anint the copious shower, like to the thunder shower, and so it takes the article. (13) thus: On thut self-same day.-( lit. thus: A trio of the wives of his sons.-(-ṃ⿳) , with them, 101, n. 1. (14)
 see 104,1 , but it is better to regard it as in apposition with the preceding noun: every winged creature.
 male of all flesh [i. e. of every kind of beast] entered in; for case abs., see
 Kal Imperf. of שָּ with ?; Dagh. forte omitted in , 20, 3. c. Rem.-
 the ultimate is shortened from röm into rŏm.

 3. c. Rem.-(ņan), plur. of art. with ה, 35, 2. B. $\alpha$. (20) Fifteen as to cubit upward; words beginning with $\underset{\substack{2}}{\beth}$, $\beth$, all these have the article-vowel; for the use of it, see p. 206, b.-( $\mathcal{Y}$ ), this, as well as the preceding trates the true nature of the so called article before participles, i. e. such in-
 the human race, or all mankind.



 with tone retracted, and the ultimate $(-)$ shortened; and there was left. (24) ロin תیַּn, lit. a hundred of day, or a hundred as to day, 118, 1. a.

## Chap. VIII.

(1) (1) apoc. Hiph. Imperf. with Y ; caused to pass over.-(9), Kal Imperf. of
 ( 1X. ; P without its Dagh. forte in the F, 20, 3. b.
 month, 113, 2. d.-( ָָּ), const. plur.; either a mountain-ridge consisting of several prominences, or it may refer to the greater and lesser Ararat; or perhaps the name is that of the region; see in Lex. (5) (5ion , Inf. abs., see in v. 3; continually turning back.-( though preceded by a vowel, on account of the pause-accent before it, 121, 1 , and of course the $¥$ here begins a clause, 21,$1 ; \frac{3}{T}$ with art. vowel; on that tenth [month], on the first of the month, i. e. first day; just like our bra-
 (군), without article, 109, 1.
 dove, (and so the raven in v. 6), where the article serves to distinguish from other species of birds.-(incin), lit. from within, 151, 2.-( 150, 2; in indirect questions (as here), p. 271, third par.; ${ }^{\text {a }}$, R, Kal Perf.
 (ב্ָরָּרָ văt-tü-shöbh), apoc. form with Vav, and ultimate vowel (long ô) shor-

 with $\xlongequal{\eta}$, as in the word before us, the final vowel ( - ) being shortened by the tone retracted to the penult. So Gesenius; others put this form in Hiphil of the same stem. Meaning here, see in No. 7 in Lex.-(50iry), 68, n. 7.-

 and a praeformative ( 5 ), which receives the Dagh. forte that follows the 9 . The rest is regular; final short syllable, because the tone is penult; see 68,

 per. Hiph. of The marginal reading (Qeri) bids us write and read אָּיחה ; which is equally
 the first two in Imper. Piel, i. e. are intensive forms of the verbs, and very significant here. As to $127 \%$, it is Perf. Kal with 4 , and is thus placed in the same predicament as the other preceding verhs, 124, 6. c.


 tion, 83, IV. 31 ; odour of delight $=$ a sweet savour.-(EOX), Hiph. Imperf. of 50n; for 5 -
 shall he] sced-time, 141. According to the accents, the first clause ends with =-nru, which has Tebhir ( $\mathrm{p} .42, \mathrm{III} .12$ ) on it. The rest connects thus: And day and night shall not cease.-n'm, penult long vowel in pause, 24, 4.b.

## §4. <br> Notes on some of the Psalms.

The poetry of the IIcbrews has characteristics which are peculiar, and which widely distinguish it, in some respects, from the poetry of the western world. So far as any one has yet been able to discover, the Hebrews had no knowledge of what we call quantity, or syllabic measure as employed in the construction of poetic verses. Many attempts have been made, since the revival of Hebrew study in Europe, to discover something of the Grecian and Roman measure in the poetry of the Scriptures ; but none have met with the desired success. Men of different nations, of extensive learning, and of great enthusiasm for Hebrew study, have made these fruitless attempts. It has indeed been affirmed by Jerome and others in ancient times, and by critics of no small reputation in modern times, that the poetry of the Old Testament displays all the rich variety of Greek and Latin measure ; and that one may find there the heroics and lyrics of the West, not only in respect to spirit, but even in regard to form:
Every attempt however to discover them, has failed to produce any general conviction of their real existence, in the minds of those who are acquainted with oriental studies; and it is now a matter of almost universal accord, that the characteristics which distinguish Hebrew poetry, are principally the following: viz. (1) A kind of rhythmical conformation of $\sigma$ tíरot or distichs. (2) A parallelism of the same in regard to sentiment. (3) A figurative, ornate, parabolic style. (4) A diction in some respects peculiar.

In regard to the first of these characteristics, the measure of syllables, i. e. their length or brevity as it regards what is called quantity, is not concerned; at least it is not, as has been already said above, discoverable by us. The terms rhythmical conformation, here employed, are designed only to mark a conformation in general, as to the respective length of lines and the number of syllables, in two corresponding $\sigma$ rixou or distichs. This is the most general of all the distinguishing features of Hebrew poetry. The exactness does not, indeed, correspond with that observed in English rhyme. But still, it is so general, and so considerable, as to force the observation of it upon every reader, who has any powers of discernment.

The second characteristic, viz. parallelism, applies to the correspondence of sentiment. This sentiment may be cither the same, (or the same with only a slight variation in the diction, or the thought, or in both,) and then the distich consists of two parallel passages, in the usual sense of the word parallel, as well as in a poetic sense; or the sentiment in one orixos may be an antithesis to that which is contained in the other, the antithetic correspondence being plainly a matter of design and calculation; or lastly, there may be nothing more than a correspondence in the length of the $\sigma \tau i-$ $\chi \circ$, and a general sameness of design, without either a synonymous or antithetic sense in the members of the distich. To produce examples of all these would be very easy; but it would be out of place here. I refer the reader, for ample satisfaction in respect to this whole subject, and that he may acquire a right and adequate understanding of it, to Bishop Lowth's celebrated and admirable Lectures on IHelrew Poetry, in particular Lect. XVIII-XX.; or (to what in some respects is still more satisfactory) to his Prefuce to the Translation of Isaiah. He may also consult De Wette, Commenttar ther den Psalmen, Einleit. § 7; Gesenius' Chrestomathy, in his introduction to the poetical part; and other writers, who have composed introductions to the Hebrew Scriptures.

In regard to the third characteristic of Hebrew poetry, it is common, in some re-
spects，to the poetry of all languages．A diction figurative，elevated，remote from the valgar one，and abounding in comparisons，is almost of course the characteristic of all poetry，which exhibits any striking display either of feeling or of imagination． But the Hebrew poctry，（which is in a peculiar sense the offspring of feeling），abounds to an uncommon degree in these characteristics．

The peculiur dictiom of Ifebrew poetry is displayed in the choice of words；in the meaning assigned to them；and in the forms which it gives to them．

 time；ロinn instead of ニッ，water．
 bull ；וִחִּדָּ the only，the durling，for life；5oin Joseph，for the nation of Israel， etc．


 he will go．
（d）In poetry，several grammatical forms are peculiar．E．g．paragogic $\Pi_{-}$ is suffixed to noms in the absolute state ；－and ${ }^{4}$－are suffixed to nouns

 of E －

In other respects too，poetic usage gives peculiar liberty．The conjugations Piel and Hithpael are sometimes used intransitively ；the apocopated future stands for the common future：the participle is often used for the verb；and anomalies in respect to concord，ellipsis，etc．，are more frequent than in prose．

The design of this brief sketch is principally to awaken in the student a desire to make himself acquainted with this decply interesting sulject，and to direct him where he should go to obtain the requisite knowledge in question．To pursue the topic here，would be premature and out of place．Nor is it necessary，since the learner can hartly fail to procure at least some of the authors，who have been mentioned above as treating of the subject before us．
It may be proper to add，that while I have almost entirgly adhered to the orixou marked by the aceents，so far as the Chrestomathy goes，yet it is not from any con－ viction of obligation to do ：o，on the ground of any real audhority in the accentuation． It is now setlled to the sati－faction of nearly if not quite all crities，that the appara－ tus of vowels and accents took its rise after the fifth century．But that the inven－ tors of the accents had a profouml knowledge of the Ifebrew tongue，will not be called in question by any grool Itebrew scholar；and therefore，as guides in the business of ascertaining the limits of the respective $\sigma$ rifor，the accents are worthy of hearty com－ mendation．I would urge the student to acquire a faniliar knowledge of all such as serve in the quality of punse aceents；among which，those which regulute the parallel lines are specially to be mentioned．
［That the hook of Psalms consists of poedry，none will deny；for the very nature of the book demands this．It is much to be regretted，therefore，that in the arrange．
ment of it, it has not generally been printed in the form of poetry, i. e. each arixos or paralleli-m in a line by itself. Jahn, in his edition of the Heb. Bible, has made such an arrangement; and so, in the small and beautiful Hebrew Bihle, printed at Leipsic by Tauchnitz, and prefaced by Rosenmueller. However, any one who will pay even a little attention to the distinctive accents, will find them employed everywhere to mark the orixou. Some of the accents, as the Table of them in $\$ 15$ will show, belong exclusively to poetry, i. e. to those books which the Masorites deemed to be pootic, viz. Psaline, Joh, and Proverbs. A very little attention to these will enahle the student to avail himself of the judgment of the Masorites, as to the proper division of the orixol, and as to the intimate connection of words with each other; a judgment, which, although not infallible, is mostly well-grounded and enlightened.

For the rest, I must again advertise the learner, that I am not acting the part of a commentator, in the following Notes. My present business is that of a grammarian. It will be well, indeed, if the student is prepared, when he gets through with this Chrestomathy, to commence what may properly be called exeg-tical study. He must lay a foundation, before he can erect the superstructure. In a review of what he has gone over, he may begin the consultation of Commentaries. The present Notes are not designed to supersede them, or to supply the place of them in regard to matters appropriately belonging to them.]

## Notes on Psalm I.


 becanse of the specifications which follow.-( 3 ) prep., vowel, p. 190, $a$; const. from of

 comp. 71, n. 1.-(בּיָּ7) , in panse. The reader will observe the Mcrka Muh-
 thus marking the three orizol of the verse. By far the greater proportion of verses, however, have but two otixol; and then the first has an Athnahh at its close, in a great majority of cases; but sometimes a Merka Mahpakh, e. g. Ps. 1: 2. 3: 3, etc. Instead of this last, snme of the greater Distinctives are occasionally employed in marking the first of three orizou; e. g. Rebliu, Ps. 2: 2, 8, 12. 3: 8. 4: 2. 5: 3, 9,* al. ; also Tiphha initial, as 3, etc.
(2) Simply thus: but, if, i. e. (if the brachylogy be filled out), but [happiness to him], if (Ex) he does what is described in the sequel. In other words, so as to give the simple order of the whole course of thought: 'Happy in case he does not do so and so, but [happy] in case ( ar if) he delights,' etc.; see
 ח্ָּ (Seghol), see p. 118, second par. at the top; syut., 125, 2, re-

[^123]specting the Imperf. as designating an habitual state.-The two following words are used adverbially; syllable in in panse.
(3) (4), 124, 6. a.-(ץ) , כafter a distinctive accent on the preceding syllable; omission of the arlicle which is usually required after (107, 3, n. 1), occasioned by the sequel making the word definite; ib. second par:-
 as one. Here the compound accent, Merka Mahpakh, is put on hoth words, the Merka on $=$ and the Mahpakh on word; $\check{\mp}$ in pause ; for the last member of a double accent marks the tone, i. e. the left hand accent is, in this case, on the tone-syllable of the compound word. Probahly these double accents were first invented, as one means of pointing out the intmate comection of words.-( VI. $i$, p. 171.-( contracted from $\boldsymbol{5} \boldsymbol{7}, 19,2 . b$, n. 1 ; so that the Dagh. forte in the suff: form is compensutive, being the expression of the suppressed 7 .-( with suff. Dec. IX, 91, 9. Rem.-(י)), Kal Imperf. of mere fulcrum or sign that a long $\mathbf{O}$ is needed; for the vowel is mutable.
 Iliph. in a simple intransitive sense, like Kal, 52,2 ; or the clanse may be rendered: 'All that' he shall do, will he manage prosperously, or make to prosper ;' thus retaining the proper meaning of the verb in Hiphil. Some apply this clanse to the tree spoken of before, as prosperously maturing its fruit; a possible construction, but not probable, for it would be merely a repetition of the preceding sentence.
 tally supplied.-( after 9 , and then we have it thus: but [as] if like the chaff, which, ete.; a
 205, a.-(n:- . . suff.
 reason for the preceding assertion. ( in the judgment, i. e. in the acknowledged judgnent of God in respect to the wicked; generic, most probally, comprising any and all juldgent.-
 implied after ?. If supplied we should translate: And sinners shall not stand; as it is, in order to give the same sense, we must render by nor.The three words, ungodly-sinners-righteous, (and the same in the next verse), are all here anarthrous; for the idea is not simply one collecterd totality, but that of some, amy, or all of each class; which indefinite form of expression demands the omission of the article.
(6) בnir, 131, 2. a. More than mere knowledge intellectual is here intended; knoweth $=$ recognizes as friends, j. e. the righteous are the Lord's
familiar acquaintance，so to speak，or，he takes knowledge of them．－（חר ？？，
 is common gender），in Kal，intrans．，lit．shall perish，but here，in its applica－ tion，shall be frustrated，or end in destruction．De Wette：shall lead to destruc－ tion；good，as to the sense，but hardly close enough to the Kal form of verb．It corresponds to Piel．Or possibly the idea is，that the path of the wicked will soon end，and they be able to make no more advances．

## $P_{\text {salm II．}}$

（1）
 En？；why do the nations，or the heathen，make an uproar？－（ロ＂enen），plur．of

 having a reciprocal sense，i．e．take mutual counsel，50，2．b．Both verbs de－ signate what is done，or being done，from time to time；synt．of the Imperf．，


（3） $\boldsymbol{M}_{r_{\tau}}^{\overbrace{2}}$ this，


 ヶがー．
（4）ニัּダタ，Part．pres．＝the dweller，or he who dwells；kindred to＂Our Father who art in heaven．＂One would naturally expect the article here； but poetic license omits it ；or，possibly it may be regarded as in the const．
 pause ；Pattah in the final syllable not in pause，47，n．2．－（אֻדֹדָּ），so pointed in order to distinguish it from my master or lord．The syllable is so pointed in order to show that it belongs to God，$=m y$ Lord in the highest sense．The form is plural，hut the meaning sing．， 106,2 ．It is usually de－ rived from ；To to judge，with a formative $\mathfrak{N}$ ；but Maurer（Comm．on Ps．35： 23）suggests，as more probable，the Arabic root ${ }^{4}$ ，fortis，robustus，potens fuit ；in which case the formation is the obvious and common one，viz．by
 Both of the Imperfect verbs，in the verse，mark habitual action，125， 2.
 contract suff．form of $\overline{2}$ ，so that Dagh．forte compensates for the ：drop－ ped，19，2，n．1．－（ contradistinguishes between what the rebels do，and what the Lord has done or is doing．－（？
 noun，121， 6.
(7) $\pi_{-}$, Imperf. Piel, with $\Pi_{-}$intensive, 48, 3.-( $3 \times$ ), either in respect to, or secundum, according to; i. e. I will proclaim aloud that whirh is accordant with the tenor of the decree ; the latter now follows.- (אַ) art thou, 119, 1.-(ニํำ), this day; showing the demonstrative power of the ar-

 $29,4.6$; Acc. in apposition with the preceding noun, and explanatory of it.
 position with the preceding, as before.
 thrown forward- ( cause of the const. state of the noun, 108, 2.-(nsin), a polter; but the omission of the article here seems to be the result of poetic license, for in such cases the insertion of it is usual in Hebrew ; if so here, then $=$ the potter.
 a meaning in Hiph., see 52, 2. Rem-(ה), Imper. of Niph., be ye instructed, or (reflexively) instruct yourstlves.-(
 To render (Imper. of \% not the vanquished. The palpitation of the heart (salit cor) through fear, is the hasis of the meaning given above. Thus we have an accession to the idea in
(12) בּשְּק, Piel Imper.; kiss, viz. in token of subjection and reverence.
 mamer; after a verb intrans.; as to your designs or efforts, or by reason of your conduct; perhaps in the way or on the way, i. e. prematurely.-(כ), for, intoducing the ground of monition.—( whole clause : for shorlly will his anger burn. Last line: O felicitates omnis confidentis in illo; or blessed are all of the trusters in him !-("0in), plur. const. of Part. pres. of $\underset{\substack{0 \\ \hline}}{ }$. - (iz), in him, a prep. intervening between the const. and the pronoun with which it is connected, 114, 1. $\alpha$. There is an ellipsis, or rather an eloquent $\sigma \iota(\operatorname{tin} \eta \iota \varsigma$, before the last clause. The course of thought is thus: 'For shortly will his anger burn;' [when it does burn, [בִי יִּבְבַּ

## Psalm III.

(1) ל ל ל auctoris, i. e. ? designates the idea of belonging or appertaining to ; 113, 2. $\alpha$.-( (in בin), Iuf. with prep. and suff.; when he fled, 129, 2; see forms of Iuf. suff, oll p. 202.-(בְּ), suff. form of $\uparrow$, Dec. VII. (2) $n \frac{n}{\%}$, like the Latin quam, quantopere, how, how much, in the way of exclama-

 (
 see Lex.
(4) $\mathfrak{\text { ª̀ }}$, from
 glory,' or else 'the olject of my glorying.'-( (םann), Part. Hiph. of anา; the lifer up of my head; dispenses with the article, because it is in the const.
 peated action, $=I$ call, 125, 4. b. It may be translated as simply future here :
 of בָּנָ , with ! and suff.—(צֵ),
 on the penult ; שiׁ for

 mis‥ The Daghesh is dropped in the form before us, and the two Beths written out.- (
(8) (8) suff. renders the long form of the Inper. Hiph. necessary; comp. in Par. $K$, where the 2 fem. and 2 plur. masc., with a vowel ending, have the same lengthened form.-( ( (9) Of Jehovah is salvation, like ?, לְדִיד ? 113, 2; or to Jehovah belongs salvation, with ? before a Dative, i. e. it is his prerogative to bestow it. The art. in ${ }^{\text {natan }}$, the salvation, points to that salvation which bas just been
 ted in $\supset$; the ground-form is $\boldsymbol{n}$, but in our text the usual $\Xi$ is written $\beth$, prohably because of the change of tone, 21, 2. $d ; \pi$ in pause, and this even with a conjunctive accent, Munahh; which is unfrequent.

## Psalm IV.

(1) art., which would normally be in 2 , is omitted, $20,3 . b$; and that the atticle belongs here, is evident from the Pattah under the 3. For meaning,
 form of צְֵּn, Imper. in with Rebhia as a divider of oxixou; = my righteous God, 104, 1.—( with art. vowel ; from $7 \underline{\underline{y}}$, which takes Qamets, when it has the article and a distinctive accent, (here a - , i. e. Tiphha anterius or initial), see p. 42, III. 14.—( (
(3) צַּ , צֶּ, lit. until what? i. e. what time $=$ how long? The next words are literally thus: my glory for shame, the copula (shall be) being omitted, 141.-( hen), the ? stands connected with an implied meaning: How long shall my honour be shamefully treated? viz. by those base men in the eye of the writer; see Lex. ? דָּה. Here Tiphha initial is a divider of
 laperf．A，and for the（ - ）under $n$ ，see 59 ，n．1．Before this $\sigma$ tizos
 3．$b$ ．
（4）： riviv，distinguished，rendered illustrious，in contrast with his being put to shame by his enemies，as mentioned above．－（\％（\％），his beloved，form in 83， 5 ； iל， 113,2 ；entirely $=$＝ with suff：，101，3．（5）Tremble，and $\sin$ not．In $N=$ n． 1 ；the Imperf．is used for the Imper．，125，3． c ；with Merka Mahpakh in－ stead of the usual Atlerahh．－（אִ），etc．，lit．speak in your hearts，i．e．com－ mune with yourselves，reflect well upon the matter；בְּ is the suff．form of $ニ ラ \geqslant$ ，Dec．IV．97，4．－On your beds，i．e．at a season of retirement．－ （ッブ：），and be silent，or be still，the first is the better here，becallse it stands in direct contrast with the slander of which the writer complains；Imper．

（6）FTצ，104， 1 ；sacrifices of righteousness means，＇such sacrifices as jus－ tice or propriety demands for the sins which they had committed，＇i．e．ex－ piatory offerings．－（x），trust in Jehovah，the Heb．verb taking a prep． after it，in this case，like the English one ；or，in other words，לֶv is put be－ fore the olyject of trust，in order to designate the direction of it．（7）：
 Mahpakh here is written on this word，and the first half on the preceding word，although not connected by a Maqqeph．The like of this may be found elsewhere，but it is not very conmon．Why an Athnahh was not put upon בis，instead of this artificial disposition of the matter，we may ask，

 is put for $\mathfrak{N}, 74$ ，VI．n． $21, b$ ；also the 0 for $\because$ ，see letter $\mathfrak{y}$ in Lex．Some copies，moreover，read $\times$ א is lighted up by approbation，by smiles；and this is the light here asked for $=$ look propitiously upon us．
 plied after the $¥$ ，viz．more than［the gladness］of the season．－（三n⿻丅⿵冂⿰⿱丶丶⿱丶丶⿱一⿱㇒⿵冂⿰丨丨一心 ），［when］ their corn ；for（when）is to be supplied here，121，3；$\square_{\top}$ sufl：－（：

 will lie down and sleep both together．＇－（



## Psalm V．

（1）תibunan，with the article；the like without one，in Ps．iv．－（2）

 my moaning.

 - ing: I will make ready [my words] for thee; I prefer the intrans. sense: I will muke preparation for thee, i. e. in order to approach thee. Then follows: And I will look [toward thee].-(Nֻֻ) is in Piel, which designates intensity.
(5) Lit. for not a God taking pleasure in iniquity art thou.-(ワ) , Imperf. Kal of רita, with suff. taking the tone; $\overline{7}$ in such a case is permitted by the Heb. idiom, 135, 3. c, but not by the English; for 4, 9, 9. 1. b.
 der the middle stem-letter instead of $(-), 73, \mathrm{n} .1$.

 by the $y$, and so we have $\Gamma, 63,3$; but $(=)$ is usual before $\pi, \pi$, and $y$.

 तथ-, see 74, n. 18.
 ing to the Qeri, חישר; ; in the Kethibh, the radical 4 is restored, and regularly

 Niph, Part. fem. = established thing, truth, 105, 3.-(קָּק), for Hhireq short here, see p. 174, at the top.-(ninh hăv-vöth), lit. mischiefs, see plural in 106, 2.-( -(




 perf, 3 plur., the ( - ) under I restored by the pause-accent, Tiphha initial ; which, though prepositive (15, Rem. I. 2), influences the tone on the


 of p. 289; for Acc., see 136, 2. Sentiment: 'Thou wilt encompass him [with] favour, as a shield [encompasses.']


[^0]:    § 30. Stem and Root-Words, (bilite- $\$$ 31. Of grammatical Structure 75 ral, triliteral, quadriliteral) 71

[^1]:    * In the regions also of the Numidian kingdom are found monuments in the Phenician language (inscriptions and coins); but it is doubtful whether this language was much diffused among the Numidian population. Sce Gesenius' Palaeographische Studien, s. 67 f. Monumenta Phenicia, p. 182 seq.
    $\dagger$ In this passage, the Aramacan and Arabian tribes, as well as the Hebrews, are derived from Shem; but not the Ethiopians and Canaanites (Phenicians), who are derived from Hum; see vs. 7, 15 seq. On the other hand, in v. 21, the Elamites and Assyrians are reckoned among the Semitae, while their language is not of the same stock with the so called Semitic. [At a later period, this is undoubtedly true; but at the time when Genesis was written, the Semitae may have been in possession of more countries.-S.]

[^2]:    * The oldest passage in the Bible, which contains Aramaean words as such, is Gen. 31: 47. Comp. the Aramaean verse in Jer. 10: 11.
    $\dagger$ See Roediger, in Zeitschrift fur die Kunde des Morgenlandes, B. II. s. 77 f.

[^3]:    * See Ges. in Allgem. Lit. Zeitung, 1839, No. 77 f. 1841, No. 40. Th. Benfey, Ueber das Verháltniss der Egypt. Sprache zum Semit. Sprachstamm. Leipzig, 1844. 8vo.
    $\dagger$ Gesenius, in his later lexical works, has made an attempt to show the points of contact between the Semitic and Indo-Germanic stems; and others have carried this comparison still further, or have undertaken it in their own way. One cannot well deny, indeed, a remote connection between the Semitic and Indo-Germanic languages. Investigation by comparison should not therefore become weary, but exercise its powers of comparing and deducing; for even the development of concordant Onomato-

[^4]:    poetica has its value for lexicography. But nowhere is deception easier or more frequent, than in these matters. Much circumspection, and particularly a comprehensive knowledge of the relation of the sounds in general of both languages, is needed for such a work, in order that one may not go astray. As investigation now stands, it is almost as important strenuously to distinguish that which has not in itself all the conditions of homogeneousness, as it is to discover what are points of agreement. Thus much at least we may regard as a certain result, viz. that the two great parentlanguages do not stand in any sisterly relation or near kindredship to each other. Besides this, it needs an analysis and resolution of the characteristic structure of both languages, in order to discover any common constituent elements. Finally, this comparative analysis belongs rather to the lexicon, than to the grammar.

[^5]:    * See Roediger in Zeitschr. für die Kunde des Morgenl. Bd. II. S. 332 ff., and Wellsted's Reisen in Arabia (Halle, 1842) II. 376 ff.

[^6]:    * In respect to the character and literature of the Semitic languages, and also the grammatical and lexical consideration and treatment of them, see Pref. to Gesen. Manual Lex., from the 2nd edit. onward.

[^7]:    * See Gesenius, Geschichte der Heb. Sprache und Schrift; Leips. 1815. §§ 5-18.

[^8]:     name both of the Canaanitish tribes in Palestine, and also of those who dwelt on the Syrian coast, at the foot of mount Lebanon, whom we call Phericians. On their coins was stamped the name $\ddagger$ yコ. The Carthaginians were called, moreover, by the same name.

[^9]:    ＊［This last statement，as to the so－called Pseudo－Isaiah，is generally acceded to by the liberal crities of Germany，and by some of their opponents．The internal evi－ dence，so far as the diction is concerned，is much against this；and even the critical difficulties which such a position involves，amount，after all，to something of grave and serious consequence．But this is no place to discuss the question．Havernick，in his recent Einleitung，has placed the matter in some new attitudes；and I venture to suggest，that the question is still somewhat remote from being settled，as Gesenius and Roediger suppose，in the manner which the sentence above implies．－S．］

[^10]:    * That at the time of Isaiah, (second half of the 8th century B. C.), the more educated Hebrews, at least the civil officers, understood the Aramaean, is plainly signified in 2 Kings 18: 26, comp. Is. 36: 11.

[^11]:    * [The book of Jonah is regarded, by the liberal critics in Germany, as a factitious romantic production, fabricated at a very late period, and made up of scraps of the O. Test. and pieces of tradition. Hence the rank assigned it as above. In the mean time, how comes it to be in such a position in the Canon, i. e. among the very oldest of the prophets? Why is it not put with Haggai and Malachi? But of what use is argument against a priori assumption? For example; 'first, a miracle is judged to be an impossibility. Secondly, the book of Jonah relates several uncommon miracles. Therefore, thirdly, it cannot be true, and must have been made up in an age of ignorance and fiction.' Truly a short method of deciding critical questions!-S.]

[^12]:    * Consult Gesenius Geschichte der Heb. Sprache, § 19-39.

[^13]:    * On the rise and ancient history of Hebrew lexicography, see Pref. to Ges. Lex. edit. IV. s. X. f. Respecting the first grammarians, see Sam. David Luzzato, Proleg. ad una Gramm. ragionata della lingua Hebraica, (Padova, 1836), p. 26 seq.

[^14]:    * See the writings of Young, Champollion, etc., respecting the hieroglyphics. A view of the principal results is given by Lepsius, Lettre a M. Rosellini sur l'Alphabet hieroglyphique. Rom. 1837, 8. Comp. Gesenius, in Allgem. Litt. Zeit. 1839. No. 77-81. Hitzig, die Erfindung des Alphabets. Zurich, 1840. fol. J. Olshausen, nber den Ursprung des Alphabets. Kiel, 1841, 8.

[^15]:    * Accurate physiological observation of the whole system of sounds, and the formation of them by the organs of speech, performs an important service here. See Liskovius, Theorie der Stimme, Leipz. 1814. J. Müller, Handbuch der Physiologie, Bd. II. s. 179 ff. Also Strodtmann, Anatomische Vorhalle zur Physiologie der Stimme und Sprachlaute, Alt. 1837, 4. With reference to Grammar, see H. Hupfeld von der Natur und den Arten der Sprachlaute, in Jahn's Jahrbh. f. Philol. Bd. IX. 1829. H. 4. II. E. Bindseil, Abhandlungen zur allgem. vergleichenden Sprachlehre (Hamb. 1839), I. Physiologie der Stimm - und Sprachlaute, s. I ff.

[^16]:    * In Arabic, diacritical points separate the stronger and weaker sounds of $y$ and $\pi$; and so each letter is, in their alphabet, divided into two, viz. y into $\mathcal{E}$ Ain and the stronger $\dot{\mathcal{C}}$ Ghain, $M$ into the slender $\subset$ Hha and the harder $\dot{\mathcal{C}}$ Kha. Besides this, the Arabians mark variation, in the like way, in the sounds of $7, v, \ldots$.

[^17]:    * So in the Sanscrit, and old Persian Keil-character; and in the Aethiopic, short $\breve{a}$ is not designated, because, if a consonant has no other vowel-mark, $\breve{u}$ of course belongs to it.
    $\dagger$ The Phenician hardly ever employs vowel-letters at all; and specially the oldest monuments have scarcely any designation whatever of them. See Mon. Phenic. p. 57, 58. Comp. §2. 2 above.

[^18]:    * [That some confusion attends this classification, is evident. Gesenius ranks Se-

[^19]:    ghol as in $n=4$, Class I. c above, under $d$ of Class II; while Roediger ranks it as above, on the alleged ground of its arising out of $a$. Gesenius puts down $\boldsymbol{\sim}-\boldsymbol{F}$, as one example of short $\check{e}$ (Seghol) ; while in such forms it is a mere assumed euphonic and helping sound, and no proper vowel; and Roed. exhibits $n=0$ for the same purpose. Ges. omits such cases of Seghol as occur in forms like rth; Roed. merely says, that they are e accented; allowing nothing for the Quiescent $\pi$. It is quite plain, that this matter is not cleared up by either writer. Seghol ( - ), like most of our vowels, is double-timed. Without a Quiescent either expressed or implied, i. e. without a, or a $m$ after it, it is short ; when coalescent with these letters, i. e. quiescent in them, it is virtually long; in a Segholate form (e. g. w-p) it is a mere euphonic slide of the voice joining two consonants together. Doubtless, in the living pronunciation of the language, some slight differences of sound, either in quality or intensity, belonged to each of these Seghols. It is in vain, now, to seek for their recall.-S.]

    * [In not a few cases, 4 is a mere vowel-sign for O , and then the Hholĕm (i) is pure, i. e. does not coalesce with the 7 ; e. g. Inf. bitep qeitol. In a great majority of cases, Hhōlĕm with Vav (i) is impure, i. e. coalesces with the 9. Familiarity with the language is the only thing that will enable the student to distinguish the cases from one another.-SS.]
    $\dagger$ Some suppose Qamets was originally written - , and Qamets Hhatuph - , and that through negligence these came to be written alike. But these two were identical in meaning; the first is the original one ; the second, derived from it.

[^20]:    * In Arabic, long $\bar{a}$ usually has an ss as its accompanying sign; and then, the three classes of vowels are marked by the three vowel-letters. In Hebrew, the relation is somewhat diverse; see $\$ 9,1 . \$ 23,2$.

[^21]:    * The like is seen in the Phenician and Arabic. In the latter, the Mss. of the Koran, and inscriptions on coins, make the fact very plain.
    $\dagger$ [When vowels are such as that they may combine or coalesce with the letter which follow them, we say that the vowels are homogeneous. The older grammarians name the letters ( $\approx, \pi,\urcorner, \square$ ) in such cases Quiescents, because their consonant-sound ceases, and only the prolonged sound of the vowel preceding is heard. The same letters are also called Mobiles, when they have a consonant-power. Roediger objects to these designations, and avers that it would be more proper to say, that the letters in question are spoken as vowels, or take the place of rowels. Yet, as no one can well be misled by the older names, when properly explained, and as they are not only very convenient, but describe very well what is matter of fact, viz, that the letters in question, after a homogeneous vowel, lose their own proper sound, I prefer not to drop the designation in question, viz. Quiescents. The same letters, on account of their frequently standing for vowels, are often technically named matres lectionis, because of the help which they afford the reader.-S.]

[^22]:    * [Au open syllable is one ending with a vowel sound; a closed syllable is one end-
    

[^23]:    * But not always, even where it ought to be; e. g. Ps. 16: 5. 55: 19, 22.
    $\dagger$ In the table above, $\$ 9,12$, the half-vowels have by anticipation been already adverted to, for the sake of making the view more complete.

[^24]:    * Most probably $\mathfrak{\sim}$ ( The form of the name comes from a transposition of the vowel, so as to place the figure ( : ) at the beginning of the name; a principle elsewhere followed in giving name to the vowels ; see $\$ 8,1$. Note 4.
     (see Monum. Phenic. p. 436). Comp. the Latin augments in momordi, pupugi, anciently memordi; while in Greek it is as in ré $\tau \downarrow \not$, т $\tau \tau v \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s . ~$
    $\ddagger$ See particularly Juda Hhayag in Ibn Ezra's Tsahhoth, p. 3. Gcsenius, Lehrgeb. d. Heb. Sprache, s. 68.

[^25]:    * So also the Jewish grammarian, Judah Hhayug. The Arabic has an actual short vowel in analogous cases. In $\boldsymbol{T}$ (agsht, it is difficult to make out the same theory.

[^26]:    * [It appears, therefore, that in Mss., * may be V ; or it may be a letter with Daghesh forte, as $\Pi$ The qav-va. The point under Yodh is a Mappiq, i. e. only a sign that ? (at the end of a word) is read as $y$ consonant. If the letter before the gave no vowel, then is a Shuref ; if it have one, then is the point a Daghesh forte, or (as above) a Mappiq in Mss.-S.]

[^27]:    * All which have this star affixed to their names, belong only to the poetical books mentioned above.

[^28]:    * Silluq has the same form as Methegh $(-1)$, see $\$ 16.2$, but never can be confounded with it. Silluq always stands on the last tone-syllable of a verse; Methegh never occupies a tone-syllable.

[^29]:    * In Punic, we find mokh out of $\boldsymbol{T}^{2}$ re malkh; Ges. Mon. Phenic. p. 431.

[^30]:    * A technical name, given from the quality of the letter.

[^31]:    * In a proper name, $n$ sometimes quiesces in the middle of a word, because it is
     The Maqqeph shows the quiescent $\pi$, in the last example.

[^32]:    * [In the older grammars, a letter is called otiant (otiater ${ }^{\text {) }}$ when it is neither a proper consonant, nor coalescent with a homogeneous vowel, and has no force or sound; like $l$ in would.]

[^33]:    * Examples where short $a ̆$ does not contract, are not unfrequent; e. g. $ヒ$ "g"»n»
     ist, as $-3_{T} 9 y$ and $\pi ל_{T}$
    

[^34]:    * The Arabian often writes $\stackrel{\circ}{2} \frac{1}{2}$, but speaks it as gā-lá. So the Seventy; e. g.
    

[^35]:    * This is a fundamental law of the Hebrew language, as developed to us in the vowel-system with which it is furnished. But there is no absolute necessity in the case; for other languages frequently have short vowels in open syllables; e. g. $\dot{\varepsilon}$ - $\gamma \varepsilon ́ v$ -$\varepsilon-\tau 0$, Arab. qax-tă-lă. It would rather seem, then, that the Hebrew, at an earlier period, had, like the Arabic, open syllables with short as well as long vowels. The present pronunciation of it probably has been modified by the mode of publicly reading it, i. e. with solemn, protracted, cantillating tone.
    $\dagger$ The Arabic employs a short vowel for the fore-tone vowel ; the Chaldee has She-
     ward, Sheva takes the same place, $\oint 27,3$. $a$. The usual long fore-tone vowel of the Hebrew, however, should not be regarded as having been artificially made, because of the tone which follows, but rather as an original vowel in this dialect; and the circumstance, that it stands hefore the tone, has contributed to preserve it, although, when the tone is moved forward, it is shortened into a Sheva.

[^36]:    * [A reference to the Greek proclitics, will render the meaning of this very plain and significant.]

[^37]:    * Analogous to this is the change of $\check{\pi}$ into $r$ in Latin; e. g. tango, attingo; laxus, prolixus. Comp. also the changes, mentioned in Note 2 above, of $\mathfrak{a}$ into $\check{e}$, as carpo, decerpo; spargo, conspergo.

[^38]:    ＊The Begadhkephath are called Tenues，when they have a Daghesh lene in them．
    $\dagger$ Aleph，however，is exempt from this rule；e．g．یッジ； ble sound of $\kappa$ ，the helping vowel may be dispensed with，and the word then becomes monosyllabic；e．g．※ขฺา，א＂ฐ，
    $\ddagger$ In these and in analogous examples（ $\$ 64,2$ ），the Daghesh lene in the final shows that the sound of the helping Pattah is very short，and also that the derivation
    
     marians，misled by the theory about Pattah furtive（as they called it），pronounced
    

[^39]:    * Letters which cannot stand together in a root, are called incompatibles. These
    
    
     o. $\gamma \delta o o s$, and much in the Sanscrit which is analogous.

[^40]:    * Comp. Hupfeld, System der semitischen Demonstrativbildung, und die damit zusammenhangenden Pronominal-und Partikelbildung, Zeitsch. fur die Kunde des Morgenlandes, Bd. II. s. 124 seq. 427 seq.

[^41]:    * The high antiquity of the pronouns is evident from their most striking agree-

[^42]:    mont with the old Egyptian ones，（the oldest of which we have any written mon－ uments）．See the comparison in Allgem．Lit．Zeitung，1839，No． 80.
    ＊In Phenician，the first person is written $\dagger$－s，without the ending＂－，probably sounded ankh．Plait．Poen．V．2，35．Gesen．Mon．Phonic．pp．365，376， 437. A trace of this form is evident in the Ethiopic $q^{n-t e d}$－lu（I have killed）．In old Egyptian it is ANK，（read anok）．

[^43]:    * See one exception, in $\$ 119,2$.

[^44]:    * In most languages, Demonstratives begin with $d$; which is thence called Deutelaut (demonstrative sound). But this is sometimes exchanged for a Silitant, or an Aspirate. Hence, in Aramaean, $\mathbb{N}, 77$, 7 …; Arab. dhu, dhi, dha; Sanscrit, sa, sā, tat; Gothic, sa, 86, thata; German, der, die, das; Eng. this (=dhis), that, those.

[^45]:    * In Phenician, it is always written $\dot{\psi}$, and spoken as $s a, s e, s i$; Monum. Phenic. p. 438. Comp. §2,5 above. In the recent Hebrew, also, $\because \in$ is the reigning method of writing the word.

[^46]:    * For brevity's sake, it is common, in lexicons and elsewhere, to translate the Perf. by the Inf.; e. g. $7{ }^{2} \mathbf{2 P}^{2}$ to learn, literally, he has learned.

[^47]:    * This Paradigm was inappropriate, because of the Gutturals. It was therefore exchanged, afterwards, for - which had this advantage, viz, that all the conjugations actually occur. But there was still one disadvantage here, viz., that in such
    
     the hurmonic treatment of the Semitic languages, since, with little change (Arab), and Ethiop. $\mathbf{V}_{-5}$ ), this verb is found in all these dialects. In Hebrew, indeed, it is rare, and occurs only in Kal, and moreover only in poctry; but still, as a model which has come down to us, it may well be retained.

[^48]:    * The name defeetier, which others often employ to designate these verbs, is inapplieable, because we can properly name in this way only those verbs, of which but a few, or at least not all, of the forms occur, ( $\$ 77$ ).

[^49]:    * In regard to the close connection hetween the third pers. Perfect and participial or verhal arljertives, see $\$ 39,1$. In intransitier verbs, the two forms are identical ; as in the text above, $\mathbb{K} \div$ is both verb and participial adjective.
    $\dagger$ [Roediger has distinguished, in his Paradigins of the verbs, those forms which he here designates as normal forms or model-forms, by an asterisk. I know of no valuable purpose to he answered by this, as to committing the verhs to memory; for a to any other use than this, it would be diffecult to name it. I omit therefore this artificial distinction, because it multiplies, mather then removes, the difficulties that lie in the student's way. He will remember the original forms themselves more easily than such distinctions.-S.]

[^50]:    * The relation of these two forms is indeed like to that of the alisolute and construet stute of nouns ( $\$ 87$ ) ; hut it differs from them in point of meaning. The form of the Inf. alos. is mostly a longer one; but oftentimes it takes other vowels than the Inf. construct; e. g. Piel, \&e, abs. \&iひた, and thus it is extendel out of that, but that is not stiortened out of this. The use of the Inf. const., moreover, is not limited merely to the cases when the Gen. follows. In the Paradigm, therefore, the Inf. construct is
    

[^51]:    * The Inf. abs., moreover, like the Greek Inf., is sometimes used for the Imper., ( $\$ 128,4 . b$ ). This, however, is no reason for regarding the Imper. as an Intinutive; for the Inf, abs. stands also for the Present, Perfect, and Future. More admissible is it, to consider the Imper. as an abridgment of the second pers. of the Imperf., (実 out of $2 \operatorname{con}_{0} \mathrm{~m}$. Better than all is it, to regard each of these three forms as an independent grammatical formation; and they are not out of one another, but all three together have arisen out of the basis of the abstract verbal form, $(\$ 39,1)$. The flexion of the Imper. may perhaps have sprung from that of the Imperfect.
    $\dagger$ Twice (Ezek. 32: 19. Jer. 49: 8) an Imper. form is found in Hophal; but with a reflexive meaning.

[^52]:    * The name Imperfect is here directly the opposite of Perfect; and this name, as employed in Ileb. Grammar, is to be taken in a much wider sense than in Greek or Latin. The Heb. Perfect designates in general that which is completed and past; at the same tims, however, it designates also what is considered or supposed to be completed, and therefore it must extend to the present, and even to what is future as to actuality. The Imperfect, on the contrary, designates that which is incomplete and in a stute of continuance, that which is hecoming so or so, and of course also that which is future. Hence it has usually been called the Future. But besides this, the Imperfect designates that which wus in a proyressive stute und a connected serquenry, (like the Latin Imperf.). In the formation of the two tenses, the difference is specially marked by the fact, that the Perfect, which is more of an objective nature, is formed by placing the verb before personal suffixes, which are thus presented as something subordinate; while on the contrary, in the Imperfect, the subject or agent from whom the action proceeds, is designated by prefix-pronouns. (See further in Synt. § 123 seq.).

[^53]:    * This is the appropriate gender of 7 :-, n-. In the Perfect, third plur., it stands, indeed, for both genders. But not so in the kindred languages; for the Syriac has masc. qetalän, fem. qetalen; Arab. masc. qetalu, fem. qetalna.

[^54]:    * The book of Chronicles often drops the Num, where it remains in the book of Kings; see 1 K. 8: 38,43 , comp. 2 Chron. 6: $29,35-1 \mathrm{~K} .12: 24$. 2 K . 11: 5 , comp. 2 Chron 11: 4. 23: 1.

[^55]:    ＊Because this Vav changes the meaning of the tenses to which it is prefixed，the Hebrew grammarians have named it Vav conversive，（i．e．conversive of the Fut．into the Practer，and of the Praet．into the Future）．More appropriate is the name Vav consecutive，since it essentially denotes sequency－progress．

[^56]:    * Whether the throwing of the tone forward has a reference in itself to the future; and on the contrary, whether throwing the tone back, (as in $5 p_{i}$ i. ), gives a nearer connection with the past, may be a matter of doubt.
    $\dagger$ The Jewish grammarians call the active participle (i. c. middle uord), not in conformity with the sense of the appellation actice, but, inasmuch as this participle often has the sense of the Present ( $\$ 131,2$ ), and therefore holds a medium between the two tenses (the Perf. and the Fut.), they call it the intermediute.

[^57]:    * In other languages one may notice the passing over of the Reflexive into the Passive. This is quite plain in Sanscrit and in Greek, where the Middle precedes the

[^58]:    * Analogous examples are ohvious, from several languages, of the strengthening power of doubled-letters. E.g. Greek: т $\bar{\lambda} \lambda \omega$ to end, $\tau \dot{\lambda i \lambda \omega}$ to bring to an end; $\gamma \dot{v} \omega$ to commence existence, jeviú $\omega$ to beget. German: reichen, recken, $[c k=k k]$ streichen, strecken; with causative meaning, stechen, stecken; wachen, wecken. Analogous to Pael $(\$ 54,1)$ is cado to fall, caedo to fell.

[^59]:    * In Arabic, Denominatives of Conj. II. are frequently employed to designate the injury of a limb, the removing of vermin, and of hurfful things. Still, this is not foreign to Conj. I. Comp. the Hebrew $\boldsymbol{n}$ (from

[^60]:    * The same ideas are also convered by the verb -u, to muke; e. g. to mukie fut, fo: acquiring fat on ons's body, Job 15: 27. To make firuits-boughs, i. e. to produce, to

[^61]:    cause to shoot forth, [like our vulgar phrase, to grow corn, rice, etc.], Job. 14: 9. Hos. 8: 7. Comp. in Latin, corpus facere, Justin. 11. 8; robur facere, Hirt. Bell. Afric. 85; so-bolem-divitias fucere, Plin.; and Ital. far corpo, far forze, far frutto.

[^62]:    * Comp. tinnio, tintinnus; the German Ticktack, Wirwar, Klingklang [Eng. vulgar ding-dong]. The repetition of a letter in verbs Ayin Doubled, brings about the
     these niccties are expressed by Diminutives; in Latin, these end in -illo, as cantillo; in German the ending is made by -eln, -ern, as fimmern (to glimmer), trillern (to trill), tröpfleln (todrop, trickle); and from this one may see the relation of these forms with the Diminutives mentioned under No. 3 above.

[^63]:    * We here connect the general principles of attaching suffixes to verbs, with the

[^64]:    * Marks of the same are found in the Afformatives of the Aethiopic: qa-tal-ka, thou hast killed; also in the Samaritan, (see Ges. Anecdota Orientalia, I. 43). Comp. the remark on $\mathrm{n}_{2} \mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{T}}, \S 44,1$. In general, the forms $t$ and $k$ not unfrequently interchange.
    $\dagger$ The usual name union-vowel we retain, although it seems to rest on mere external appearance, and is somewhat rague. These union-vowels appear to be the frag. ments of old verbal endings. Let any one reflect on the Heb. form qutal-ani, in comparison with the Arabic qatala-ni.

[^65]:    * See a view of the Classes of Verbs, in \$ 41.
    [ 1 In some former editions of my Heb . Grammar, I proposed the technical and analogical names, $P e$ Guttural, Ayin Guttural, and Lamedh Guttural. Roediger chonses first, second or middle, and third Guttural. It is unimportant which is pre-ferred.-S.]

[^66]:    ＊The common explanation which is here given of this epenthectic vowel，inserted in order to make the Daghesh letter more audible，may suffice ；particularly if one com－ pares the resemblance between this and some forms in verbs $\because \because$ ；c．g．comp．ni＝y
     with $-y^{-2}$ ．Gesenius（edit．13th of this Gramm．）brings forward the suggestion， whether the i and－epenthetic here may not be a part of the appenderl pronoun，de－ riving＂－：－from na．The $i$ he explains by the Egyptian，where eVToK（thou）， e $V T O T e V(y e), A N K$（ $I$ ，comp．＝es），ete，show a corresponding $O$ ．
    $\dagger$ It might appear easier to explain the form of the Imperf．$=0 \%$ ，（also the Imperf．
     and the like in Hiph．and Hophal．But this mere mechanical way of explanation is not always congruous with the real nature of things．

[^67]:    * The Hebrew \} ? verbs first Guttural; especially in verbs $\approx \frac{\ddot{\prime \prime}}{2}, \S 67$, and 1 ジ, $\S 71$.
    $\dagger$ The gender and number endings of the Participles have the tone, as in the case of nouns, since they do not properly belong to the verbal flexion.

[^68]:    $\because$-, in Kal Perf. ; as
    

[^69]:    * In the instances cited, the forms with ( - ) have a Jussive sense, and might be explained by their nature which is kindred with the Imper. (-.). But this does not aph-

[^70]:    * It deserves remark here, that verls " ance with their origin, form the second syllable predominantly with $O$. See, besides
    

[^71]:    * The ending $\pi_{-}$, in these cases, has been compared with the Aramaean status
     Some of the examples have the article, which leads us to suppose an ignorance of the Aramacan form. (2) The examples belong, in part, to the older books. (3) That so old and frequent a word as be only an Accus. cuding, with an adverbial meaning; noctu. Afterwards this might be employed for nor, without any special regard to the ending; somewhat like the
    
    + This ending also has been compared with the Aramaean status emphaticus, or else regarded as an Acc. ending.
    $\ddagger$ In respect to $r$ consonumt as an ending of the fem, no question can well be raised. [It is against all analogy and probability.]

[^72]:    * Including here the Guttural verbs also.

[^73]:    * All these forms are, muttatis mutandis, in the Arabic, and are Infinitives or so-called Nomina Actionis.

[^74]:    * In respect to $\boldsymbol{F}$ 访 it is easy to refer it to such an origin, from analogy to the Arabic; in respect to some other words, it becomes more difficult to do this. Comp. --3 as the name of a town with the appellative $7-\ldots$ wall; also the shortening in the const. state; as ตnz out of ตระ.

[^75]:    ＊On the structure of the fem．form without a Daghesh，see § $92 . \mathrm{n} .2$.

[^76]:    * For some defunct endings of this kind, see § 88 .
    $\dagger$ The general inclination of the Heb. language is to throw the tone upon the end of a word, and also the main stress of voice on the end of clauses of intimately connected words; (see § 29,1 ).

[^77]:    * In the connection of words customary in ancient times, these old endings are often preserved, while, ont of such connection, they are rarely to be found, or not at all. E. g. the fem. ending ( $n-)$ is still in a Genitive connection, $(\S 87,2$, b), and in a verb connected with a suffix, $(\$ 58,1)$. So there is preserved in the poets, and in proper names, many relics of the ancient language.

[^78]:    ＊See on the nature of these，the Note that follows the Paradigm of nouns，§ 91.
    $\dagger$［Gesenius and Roediger state this matter thus：＂When the tone advances tuo places， as in the const．state of the plural，etc．＂But the const．state does not adeance the tone beyond where it stands in the absolute plural．The clipping of the vowels in the const．state belongs to rietorical enunciation，not to the removal of the word－tone be－ yond where it is in the absolute plural，but to the removal of the emphasis of the voice．－S．］

[^79]:    * This seems to be against the general rule in $\$ 27,3$. inasmuch as the tone is not thrown forward at all by the ending 5-. But this seeming exception may be explained by the fact, that this $\pi-$ is an abritgment of the old fem. $n-$ with the tone; see § 79, 2 .

[^80]:    * Above, in $\$ 81,2$, it is mentioned, that these nouns, although primitive, always follow the analogy of verbals, and are so treated in Grammar. For the flexion, it is necessary to know after what class of the irregular verbs these primitives are modelled.

[^81]:    
    
    $\dagger$ In the vulgar dialects of the Arab．and Ethiopic the fem．form of the numerals is predominant．This is employed in Heb．also，when the alstract idea of number is designated，Gen．4：15．Feninine forms are also employed，to designate collectives and generic ideas of nultitude，$\S 105,2$.

[^82]:    * The etymology of this word is obscure. Rabbi Jona explains it by שy yuto twelve, i. e. near to twelve; an expression like undeviginti, which is less applicable here. Besides, this would properly suit only the fem., while the masc. is also employed. If the derivation of עַשְׁn were from the source which he supposes, must it not be written added to ten, from nevev to suppose. [Fanciful enough.]

[^83]:    * Comp. the Latin verum, causâ; German statt, anstatt ; weg, wegen; [Eng. way, avay; side, besides; cause, because, etc.]

[^84]:    ＊The derivation of 3 from $3 x$ ，and more remotely still，from a root which means

[^85]:    * Some few adjectives of this sort there are, formed after the manner of the pass.
    

[^86]:    * In respect to Nos. 3, 4, see striking remarks in Harris' Hermes, I. p. 37, etc.

[^87]:    * Thus EN, 2 Sam. 20: 19, stands for mother-toun; as it does on Phenician coins; comp. $- \pm \mathbb{2}, 2$ Sam. 8: 1, and also $\mu \eta \tau \rho o ́ \pi n \hat{n} \iota \mathrm{~s}$. It is the same image carried out, when the inhabitants of a country are called its sons; e. g. sons of Zion, Ps. 149: 2;

[^88]:    ＊It is．（to use a mathematical expression）a transfer of mutable extension to immu－ talle，（note 1 below）．Elsewhere in the language，lurge and much are both designated by the same words，viz．ニั and 上งะジ．
    $\ddagger$ Something like to this is it．when kings，speaking of themselves，say we；Eara 4： 18：7：24，（omp）． 1 Mace．10：19．11：31；a mode of speaking transferred to the divine
     （i．e．the plar．of strengrth）；recent grammarians call it phurulis racellontice．or phrculis mujestutions．The use of the plural as a form of respect in address，（in Cerman sie， they），such as some of the modern languages have，（Eng．you，French cous，etc．）is somewhat foreign to the Heb．usage．

[^89]:    [* Remare. A fit name for most of these would be pluralis intensivus, or plur. of intensity; where the object is not to designate merely the multitudinous condition of a thing, but to give a strong colouring to the expression itself, or (as we say) to make it emphutic. Viewed in this light, the solution is easy. All languages exhibit something of the same idiom. The Greek goes much beyond the common estimate in this respect. In common prose it is indeed quite limited; with the exception of neuter-pharal adjectives and adverbs. But whoever will watch this matter in ancient Greek, e. g. in deschylus, will find it in his tragedies far more frequent than in any part of the Hebrew Seriptures. It might even be called Graccism, as developed in him; for the like. in the same degree, I have met with in no other language. It were easy to particularize by some scores of words, but time and place forbid. My apprehension is, that the generic idea of intensity runs through nearly all these expressions, (except where severality of parts is implied by the plural, or simple agyreguetion). To understand the nature of this idiom well, is essential to a radical knowledge of the Hebrew.-S.]

[^90]:    [* All this serves to show how undefined and unsettled still are some of the nicer limits of the Heb. article; as they are in some cases, also, of the Greek one.-S ]

[^91]:    * All eases of prerriciples with the article fail of establishing the point in question. It is a mere relative demonstrative. The other cases, Ex. 9: 27 excepted, (and this is a doubtful case), fail as to confirming the principle.

[^92]:    * So in Latin as to injuric, metus, spes, etc. Caes. Bell. Gall. I. 30. Gell. 9: 12. E. g. metus Pompeii, metus hostium ; in Greek, $\pi i \sigma \tau \iota s \vartheta \varepsilon o v ̀, ~ \lambda o ́ \gamma o s ~ \tau o v ̃ ~ \sigma t a v \rho o v ̃, ~ 1 ~ C o r . ~$ I: 18 , etc.

[^93]:    * Essentially the Gascogner speaks as correctly, in his la fille a Mr. N., as the written language in la fille de-. The first denotes appertainment, the second origin. The Arabians distinguish a double Genitive; the one by ?, the other by ir. The Roman languages, with their de, proceed on the ground of the last expression, [denoting the origin]. In Greek, comp. what is called schema Colophonium, e. g. ij кعфа入ì $\tau \bar{\psi}$
    

[^94]:    * The word תis means being, substance, (comp. ーis sign). From this, in close connection, comes the toneless - - , and then the independent accented word r . . Connected in the const. state with a noun following, or with a suffix, it designates the meaning of ipse, aítós, (see $\$ 122$, n. 3). In common use, however, it is softened down, so as only to mark the definiteness of an olject. It becomes as weak here,

[^95]:    * Possessive pronouns may also, as in Aramaean, be expressed by circumlocution; e. $g$. Ruth 2: 21, ל? particular is this method of expression adopted, when a Gen. already precedes; as in 1 Sam. 17: 40. (Comp. the circumlocutory Genitives in §113). A suffix in addition to this, prefixed to the noun, is pleonastic, 「excepting, perhaps, that it gives promi-
     sedan, Solomon's.

[^96]:    * See Ges. Thes. p. 329. Comp. the Phenician names of their gods, viz. Adonis
    

[^97]:    * In Arabic the rule is, that the relative is omitted when it would refer to an indefinite subject; inserted, when it refers to a definite one. In Heb. prose such is usually the case; Jer. 23: 29. Ex. 14: 13, al. Yet the relative is sometimes wanting after definite nouns, Ex. 18: 20. 2 Sam. 18: 14, particularly in poetry, Ps. 18: 3. 49:13, 21. Deut. 32: 17. Job 3: 3.

[^98]:    * [That the whole superstructure of the Hebrew tenses is in reality erected on this basis, seems to be all but demonstrated in the sequel, by the labours of Gesenius and Roediger. The latter has ventured on the name Imperfect, for the second tense of the Hebrew ; not exactly that of the Greeks and Latins, but sui generis as to its latitude of extent. The philosophy is good; for Varro had a clear perception of the principle, simply from the reason and nature of the case. It would seem that the perpetually controverted subject of the Heb. tenses now bids fair to rest on the rational and solid basis on which it has recently been placed.-S.]

[^99]:    * When these particles bave another meaning, this construction with the Imperf. is superseded; e.g. $¥ \underset{Z}{ }$ because, with the Perf., Judg. 2: 20. So with Gen. 34: 27.
    $\dagger$ This particle gives to the verb the stamp of request, wish. Respecting its use in the first person, see § 126,1 .

[^100]:    * When rș means then, and relates to the future, the Imperf. has the meaning of the Future; Ex. 12: 48.

[^101]:    

[^102]:    after niug used as a verbal noum, ( $\$ 112,2$ ); which is the usual construction in Ara-
    bic. But since $-\mathbb{x}$ (sign of the Ace.) is used before nouns in the same predieament
     do). it seems clear that the Hebrews treated such cases as verl and Accusutice. Comp. Nos. 2. 3., in the sequel.

[^103]:    * Respecting the article placed before the predicate here, see § 108,3 , n. [See also the remarks on the same, which call in question the use of the genuine article in such cases].

[^104]:    * [This plainly appears in the equivalent expression willingly do, readily do.]

[^105]:    * The Arabian says: Voledut dilacorart, (he was desirous that he might tear in pieces) ; the Syrian: Volduat tolleret (Luke 18:13), he wished to talie uray. But the conjunction that is more frequently inserted. Even the Latins omit conjunctions in the same way as above, in certain cases, as Quid vis fucierm? Ter. So, volo hoc orcttori contingat, Cie. Brut. 84. So in English, I would he shall go, etc.

[^106]:    * This construction is frequent in the Syriac, (see Hoffm. Gramm. Syr. p. 343 b.), and is by no means, with J. D. Michaelis, to be held for a Graecism.

[^107]:    * Rarely is the object put between the negation and the verb; as in Job 22: 7. 34: 23. Ecc. 10: 10. In 2 K. 5: 26, the subject comes between; in Ps. 6: 2, an adjunct limitation.

[^108]:    * Such a case absolute may be preceded by ? ; as in Ps. 16: 3. Is. 32: 1.

[^109]:    * When $x:-$ supplies the place of a copuld, it remains unchanged, even when placed between plurals and feminines; e. g. The offerings of Thovah ir mize Nin, this is his heritage. Comp. Jor. 10: 3.

[^110]:    * So in Greek; ov in questions where the answer is expected to be affirmative, $\Pi$ I. X. 165. IV. $242 ; \mu \eta$ where it is expected to be negative, as in Odyss. VI. 200.
    $\dagger$ So $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ what? is also employed. Spoken indignantly, or in the way of reproof, it stands for prohibition ; c. g. Cant. 8:4. Job 16:6.31:1. In Arabic, it is frequently a negation.

[^111]:     composite as to their elements, yet convey but one definite idea. This stands contrasted with sueh words as "上5\%s from before-a composite idea.
     (lit. from the upper surface of the altar), he exhausts the idea to be communicated; while the French with its il prend le chapeau sur la tuble, and the German with its er nimmt den Hut rom Tische weq, do but half express it, each in its own way. [The English is often nearer the Hebrew ; e. g. he took the cover off from the dish].

[^112]:     verl, (Holfin. Gramm. Syr. p. 280 Lott.). In Hebrew, $\mathfrak{i} ?$ from at, = Lat, usque $a$, usque ex, comp. also inde.

[^113]:    * See similar facts, in $\S 105,1 . n . \S 144 . n .1$.

[^114]:    * [So Gesenius and Roediger. I deem it quite as well to follow our English version: as the sparks fly upward. The sentiment is, that trouble is as natural to man as the flying upwards of sparks is to fire. This is at least more casy and natural than the other version, and not less poetic.-S.]

[^115]:     when uttered interroqutively, it amounts to an optatice particle $(\$ 132,2)$; as $-7 \%-42$, may he not live? = if he may only live! Thence a conditional particle, as if he lived! (which he probably does not).

[^116]:    * The principal book on the oldest modes of writing in Egypt (the hieroglyphic and hieratic), is Champollion's Grammuire Egyptienne, Paris 1836. fol. A synopsis of the principal well grounded results is given by Lepsius, Le Lettre à Rosellini sur l'Alphabet hieroylyphirque, Rom. 1837. 8vo. An abridgment of this by Gesenius, is in the Allgem. Litt. Zeitung of Halle, 1839. Nos. 77-81.
    $\dagger$ See Article on Palueograplie in Ersch and Gruber's Encyclop. §3. B. ix. Comp. Hitzig, Die Erfindung des Alphabets, Zürich, 1840. fol. Olshausen, Lieber den Lisprung des Alphetets, Kiel, 1841. 8vo. It deserves special notice, that so many of the names of letters relate to ohjects of pustoral life. Some also appear to be of Egyptian origin ; at least the Tet.

[^117]:    * The forms with a star are here the exclusively poetical ones. Those in a paren-

[^118]:    thesis are unusual forms, which however are necessary to a view of analogy.

[^119]:    * The small $e$ above the line represents vocal and simple Sheva; $a, e, o$ (Italic), small and above the line, represent the three composite Shevas, (on p. 37), which are always vocal. The â, $\hat{e}, \hat{i}, \hat{o}, \hat{u}$, represent the respective vowels on p .27 seq , when they have a quiescent letter combined with them; $\bar{a}$, $\bar{e}$, etc., the same vowels without such Quiescent ; a, e, ete., represent the short rowels in an open syllable; ă, $\check{e}$, etc., the same in a closed one.
    $\dagger$ In all cases, the first number denotes the section (§) in the Grammar, unless p. ( = page) is prefixed. The numbers or letters that follow, are the large-number divisions of the ( $\$$ ), and then the subdivisions under it.

[^120]:    every rule of syntax might also be illustrated and made familiar; but the ordinary limits of such a book will naturally permit only the most important or difficult ones to be exhibited.
    I will only add, that, in my view, the public have good ground for the expectation, that Prof. Hackett will execute the work in question in a manner both useful and satisfactory.

[^121]:    * To save the multiplication of paragraphs and the space necessary for it, I have included each IIebrew word on which remarks are male, in a parenthesis; merely that the eye may casily aud readily catch them, and thus save delay in hunting for them.

[^122]:    * Whor only the ( 1 ) is refered to as here that which comes jirat, and has no number affixed to it, is aimed at hy the reference.

[^123]:    * Rosenmueller, overlooking the Rebhia in these last two cases, has evidently arranged the parallelisms wrongly, in the small and excellent Heb. Bible mentioned ahove. And so elsewhere, at times.

